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The Fusion Situation

At this writing, the New York daily newspapers are saying that the Fusion ticket is in a chaotic condition. On the contrary, we believe that its situation—which in its broader phases is treated in an editorial and in special correspondence in this number—is being hourly more clearly defined. Mr. Whitman, who failed to receive the Fusion nomination for Mayor and was named instead for the office of District Attorney, has formally accepted also the nomination of Tammany Hall for the office of District Attorney. In his acceptance he clearly displayed his disappointment at not having been selected by the Fusionists as their candidate for Mayor. Observers familiar with the history of Tammany Hall cannot be blamed for believing that it has selected Mr. Whitman for the District Attorneyship not because it desires effective prosecution of crime, vice, and graft, but because it wishes to remove from the rank of its campaign opponents the one man who could most successfully attack it on the issue of police corruption. Mr. Mitchel, the Fusion candidate for Mayor, has formally declined the Mayoralty nomination tendered by the Independence League, the personal political association established and maintained by William R. Hearst, the proprietor of the yellowest newspapers published in the United States. Mr. Mitchel declines this nomination because the League has not included his associates on the Fusion ticket. The committee which proposes to nominate Mayor Gaynor on an independent ticket has made overtures to Mr. McAneny and Mr. Prendergast, of the Fusion ticket. They should decline the offer of the Gaynor committee on the same ground that Mr. Mitchel declined the offer of the Hearst League. It is the ground upon which Mr. Whitman should have declined the Tammany nomination. We state it in Mr. Mitchel's own words:

> The issue in this municipal campaign is perfectly plain and very simple. It involves unreserved and unrelenting opposition to Tammany Hall and to all the pernicious influences that flow from it, and the interests that minister to it. In meeting this issue the Fusion candidates are confronted, first, by the open and impudent opposition of Murphy and Tammany Hall itself; and, second, by the hidden and subtle opposition of those forces behind the Gaynor candidacy that would weaken the Fusion ticket by destroying its unity and integrity through picking off candidates from it for indorsement and support.

If the city government is Tammanyized at the November election, it will be the fault, not of corruptionists, but of those respectable and good citizens who are supporting Mr. Whitman and Mr. Gaynor in their mistaken and unwise course. Mr. Mitchel's position is a sound one from every point of view. It confirms the wisdom of the Fusion Committee in nominating him, and we believe it must command the respect of every man who admires consistency, courage, and loyalty in a fight more than he does political expediency.

President Wilson and Mexico

Elsewhere in this issue of The Outlook will be found a discussion of the Mexican situation as it appears now that the public is fully informed as to the negotiations which have been going on between President Wilson through his special envoy, ex-Governor John Lind, and Huerta. On Wednesday of last week President Wilson appeared before Congress in person and read a special message, or address, putting clearly, although in general terms rather than in detail, the history of "what this Government has done and should seek to do in fulfillment of its obligation to Mexico herself as a friend and neighbor, and to American citizens whose lives and vital interests are daily affected by the distressing conditions which now obtain beyond our southern border." This sentence gives the keynote of the entire address, which in moderate but evidently sincere terms urged that Mexico should be helped

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toward peace and toward at least an attempt to gain self-government and reasonable liberty. Mr. Wilson admitted that his negotiations had failed for the minute at least, but expressed the hope and belief that no long time will elapse before "we shall triumph as the friends of Mexico." In condensed form, his statement of fact said: Conditions in Mexico have grown worse, not better; the territory controlled by Huerta has grown smaller, not larger; the temporary government has not made good its claims as a legitimate government, neither has it put down opposition by force of arms; the duty of the United States to volunteer its good offices was apparent. Mr. Lind's instructions are quoted in full. The practical programme offered was as follows:

> A satisfactory settlement seems to us to be conditioned on:
> (*a*) An immediate cessation of fighting throughout Mexico, a definite armistice solemnly entered into and scrupulously observed;
> (*b*) Security given for an early and free election in which all agree to take part;
> (*c*) The consent of General Huerta to bind himself not to be a candidate for election as President of the Republic at this election; and
> (*d*) The agreement of all parties to abide by the results of the election, and co-operate in the most loyal way in organizing and supporting the new Administration.
> The Government of the United States will be glad to play any part in this settlement or in its carrying out which it can play honorably and consistently with international right. It pledges itself to recognize and in every way possible and proper to assist the Administration chosen and set up in Mexico in the way and on the conditions suggested.

These proposals were rejected; but the President does not believe that through misunderstanding Mexico will long reject our friendship. Meanwhile what is to be done? The President's answer is: True neutrality, self-restraint; await a new opportunity to aid in a peaceable solution; advise Americans who can leave Mexico to do so; finally, exercise the right established by the best practice of nations, and forbid the exportation of arms and munitions of war from the United States to any part of Mexico. This course and "the steady pressure of moral force" will in the end, says the President, "prevail." It will be noted that in the instructions to Mr. Lind and the suggestions to Mexico there is no mention of any concrete act to be performed by the United States; so that our proposals are not strictly "meditation," but urgent advice to the Huerta Government as to what it should do. There is, for instance, no suggestion as to how the half-dozen or so of insurgent leaders in different parts of Mexico, fighting without common organization or common leadership, should be brought into an arrangement for temporary peace and a fair election.

Mexico's Reply A reply written by Mexico's Secretary of the Interior, Mr. Gamboa, in behalf of the Provisional Government, was laid before Congress by President Wilson with his own Message. It is a voluminous and verbose document, not always in the best of taste or temper, although personally respectful to Mr. Wilson. It considers the American proposals humiliating, declares over and over again that the Provisional Government is absolutely constitutional, asserts that it is in control of twenty-two out of the twenty-seven political entities of which Mexico is made up, insists that its army of eighty thousand men in the field can take care of rebellion, resents the request that a free election should be held and that Huerta should pledge himself not to be a candidate as uncalled for and practically as none of our business, asks that we withhold arms from the rebels and maintain strict neutrality; and as counter-proposals requests that a Mexican Ambassador be received in Washington and a new Ambassador sent from the United States to Mexico—that is, in effect, recognition. But in subsequent correspondence between Mr. Lind and Mr. Gamboa which has been made public the latter certainly indicates a disposition to negotiate further and perhaps to accede to some of our requests, in substance if not in form. Thus, the counter-proposals noted above are abandoned altogether. And when Mr. Gamboa points out that, under the Constitution, Huerta could not be a candidate, because the Constitution forbids a Cabinet Secretary who has become Provisional President from being a candidate for the Presidency at an election, it would seem to be not a long step for Huerta to say openly that he cannot and will not be a candidate. But cynics point out that it would be a very easy thing, if Huerta *means* to be a candidate, for him first to resign as Provisional President and put another man in his place. In his later letters Mr. Gamboa bitterly resents a suggestion from Mr. Lind that, in case our proposals are accepted, the Administration might assure

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American bankers that our Government would look with favor upon an immediate loan to Mexico to meet its notoriously pressing need of money for expenses. He still maintains, with elaborate and quite unnecessary argument, that Mexico must not forego her sovereignty; to accept the advice of a friendly country without pressure or threat of force, and in Mexico's own interests, would be the wisest possible act of sovereignty.

Slavery in the Philippines

A detailed statement and appeal has been laid before Congress by the Secretary of the Interior of the Philippine Islands, Mr. Dean C. Worcester, relating to slaveholding and peonage in the Philippine Islands. Mr. Worcester is well known to all interested in the Philippines as the author of two or more books on the islands, and has had for many years special opportunities of knowing about conditions in the islands. The evidence adduced by him is certainly sufficient to make a complete inquiry by Congress desirable. If the facts are as stated, they throw a strong light on the backwardness of civilization in the islands and furnish evidence to sustain the position that complete independence is not yet to be thought of. The Philippine Legislature was long ago asked to pass an act enforcing the Constitutional provision of the Philippine Bill, under which government is carried on, which declares, as does the United States Constitution for this country, that "neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, shall exist." It is said that the Philippine legislators hold that the Spanish law relating to kidnapping forbade anything resembling slavery, and that no further legislation was needed. The Filipino delegate in Congress, Mr. Quezon, has denied vigorously that there is anything in the Philippines which resembles the institution of slavery, and particularly resents the charge that there have been cases of something very much like slavery even in the city of Manila. Mr. Worcester in his report makes that charge, and also instances very many cases, with names and dates, when, in the more distant parts of various provinces, boys and girls, and even older persons, have been sold for household service. For instance, he quotes a report to Mr. Taft when he was Governor-General of the Philippines, made by the native Governor of the province of Isabela, in which this Governor, while denying that he bought slaves for himself, admits that others had done so, including a man who had been Secretary of the Province. The usual practice, as stated by Mr. Worcester, is for the savage Igorrotes to capture slaves from remote tribes and sell them in the provincial towns. It is fair to remember that in many of the remote parts of the large number of islands which make up the Philippines a very low state of civilization exists as compared with that in the largest islands and in the large cities, and the difficulties of dealing with this subject, as with the subject of polygamy in those islands chiefly inhabited by Mohammedans, are not inconsiderable. It is believed that our Government will at once institute an investigation, and, if the facts are as alleged, will take whatever steps are best adapted to do away with the reproach that slavery exists under the American flag. There are two ways of separating slavery from the American flag: one is to take away the flag, the other is to take away the slavery. We believe, and we think most Americans believe, that the better way of the two is to take away the slavery.

The Palace of Peace

There never was a better statement of the spirit in which the world should work for universal peace than in the two questions put by Mr. Van Swinderen, the retiring Dutch Minister of Foreign Affairs, in his speech accepting the custody of the Palace of Peace dedicated at The Hague on Thursday of last week. Turning to Mr. Carnegie, the donor of the imposing edifice, Mr. Van Swinderen said (to quote the cable accounts of the occasion): "Will the edifice live up to its high-sounding name? No! Not if it is taken to imply that its bell will shortly ring in the inauguration of eternal peace—two words which are always out of place except when they are inscribed over the entrance gate of a cemetery." But he added, emphatically: "Yes! If expectations do not attempt a flight beyond the borders of what, humanly speaking, is possible of realization." Equally true was Mr. Van Swinderen's quotation from the address made by Senator Root when the foundation stone of the Pan-American Building at Washington was laid: "The matters in dispute between nations are nothing; the spirit which deals with them is everything." The dedication of the Palace of Peace took place in the presence of Queen Wilhelmina and her Consort, Prince Henry, the Queen

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Mother, and a large assembly of distinguished men from many nations. The purpose of the edifice, as expressed by Mr. Carnegie in the deed of gift by which ten years ago he placed a million and a half of dollars at the disposal of the Dutch Government for the building, was to erect and maintain at The Hague a court-house and library for the Permanent Court of Arbitration. The building is around a beautiful garden; three of the four sides are to be devoted to the purposes of the Court of Arbitration, the fourth to the library.

Recovery of Skeletons from the Petropavlovsk

On the night of April 12, 1904, the Russian battle-ship Petropavlovsk, while maneuvering against the blockading fleet of the Japanese off Port Arthur, struck a floating mine, and was so seriously injured by its explosion that she sank almost immediately, carrying down Admiral Makarof, Rear-Admiral Molas, the Russian artist Verestchagin, and nearly six hundred officers and men. Owing to the great depth at which the remains of the vessel lay—130 fathoms—salvage operations were regarded, for a long time, as impracticable, and no attempt was made either by Japan or by Russia to recover the bodies of the lost. Last spring, however, a Japanese contractor named Sakurai succeeded in locating the sunken wreck, by means of divers, and a few weeks ago his experts, working at a depth of nearly eight hundred feet, entered what was believed to be the council-room of the battle-ship and found there the remains of Admiral Makarof, Rear-Admiral Molas, and four other officers whose skeletons could not be identified. The bones were brought to the surface, placed in caskets, and sent to Dairen, where funeral services were held over them in the Russian Church. Among the distinguished Japanese and Russian officers present were Governor Shirani, Major-General Fukuda, and Vice-Admiral Yakovlef, who was in command of the ill-fated battle-ship when she sank. The remains of Vice-Admiral Molas were sent to Russia, but the bones of the others were buried in the Russian cemetery at Port Arthur, where wreaths of flowers were placed on the graves by officers representing the navy of Japan. The artist Verestchagin does not seem to have been in the room where Admiral Makarof and his officers were assembled at the time of the disaster, but his remains may yet be found and identified, although it is not often that skeletons are recovered from a depth of eight hundred feet in the open sea, after the lapse of nine years.

State Spirit vs. Missouri Mud

There are cynics, we suppose, who would hold that the feat of "pulling Missouri out of the mud" was as impossible for the people of that State as for an individual to lift himself by his bootstraps. "If you removed the mud, where would be the State?" was the way a jaundiced traveling man expressed his disbelief in the accomplishment of the task as reported in the newspapers at the conclusion of Governor Major's two "Good Road Days" recently. All facetiousness aside, however, there is something inspiring in the spectacle of the people of a great State taking a double holiday to join in a work of such usefulness to all as repairing the public roads. A holiday it was, indeed, for the spirit of jovial helpfulness characteristic of the old-fashioned husking-bee or house-framing was the spirit of the occasion. Lily-handed clerks and pudgy-palmed business men swung their picks as eagerly as the farmers and convicts of the State, although the last had the prospect of a fifteen days' commutation of sentence to spur them on. According to the press despatches, most of the shops were closed and there was little business done but road-making in Missouri on these two days. In St. Louis County, it is said, where solid, well-oiled roads are the rule, the zealous citizens satisfied their ardor in trimming weeds along the roadside. The lunches prepared by the women of the State were described as "surpassing the wildest dreams of a poor ordinary pick-and-shovel man," and went far as a solace for blisters. Grave doctors shoveled what had been pried loose by the picks of learned judges; no class was exempt from duty. Practically every State Department head did his stint under the watchful eye of State Commissioner of Labor John T. Fitzpatrick. Governor Hodge, of Kansas, crossed the State line to help Governor Major run a "grader," and became so enthusiastic that he declared his intention of setting aside two "Good Road Days" for Kansas. Governor Major has announced that work was accomplished which would have cost the State $1,500,000 if paid for under the usual system. It is not so much any concrete result as the spirit of Governor Major's innovation that has the

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most appeal, however. In these effete times a taste of the stern life of our ancestors, when the struggle for existence was a hand-to-hand fight with nature, is bound to have a salutary effect on character. Those Missouri men and women will be better citizens for the two days they worked shoulder-to-shoulder for the common weal.

The Law's Delay

Those who have a preconceived idea that lawyers are averse to any improvement in the conditions which now too often impede the course of justice should read the report of a special committee, of which Mr. Everett P. Wheeler is chairman, which has been laid before the meeting of the American Bar Association in session this week at Montreal. This report suggests remedies and formulates laws to prevent delay and unnecessary cost in litigation. It takes up in detail the remedies proposed in bills now or recently before Congress, discusses practically, and sometimes technically, desirable changes in the rules of equity, changes in State procedures, the procedure in jury trial, the large subject of injunction, and many other matters. As regards injunctions, the committee, while strongly disapproving certain proposed bills as they were originally presented to Congress, cordially indorses the act passed last March, which provides, among other things, that when an injunction is asked for suspending or restraining the enforcing or execution of any statute of a State, by restraining the action of an officer of the State, or of an administrative board, the application must be presented "to a Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, or to a circuit or district Judge, and shall be heard and determined by three Judges, of whom at least one shall be a Justice of the Supreme Court or a circuit Judge; the other two may be either circuit or district Judges." We have been particularly interested, however, in the subject of "preventive relief," as explained by the committee in this report. Practically we have no such thing now in this country, except where a man is bound over to keep the peace; but in England a process allows a court to act, so to speak, in advance, and thereby makes unnecessary long and expensive litigation. Thus, the committee points out, the only way to find out in this country what a contract means is to break it and then bring the matter before the court. In England, on the other hand, any person interested may bring a petition before the court without alleging that the contract has been broken, but asking that the court construe the meaning of the contract and declare the rights of the persons interested. The same thing is true in England of wills and deeds. In Continental Europe what are called "public wills" are more or less in vogue; in this form of will questions of testamentary capacity and undue influence may be determined at the very time the will is made. It is perfectly obvious that this form of legal procedure provides a means of avoiding delay and expense. It is more than probable that in this general direction—namely, the declaration by authority under law of the meaning and force of contracts of various kinds—a way out may be found from a vast amount of objectionable delay in the civil courts.

A Lesson in History and Government

The meadow in Central Park facing the West Drive near Seventieth Street, in New York City, known as the Sheepfold, presented an animated appearance on Saturday afternoon of last week, when five thousand of New York City's children, under the direction of forty leaders of Park Playgrounds, presented, in costume, by dances, tableaux, and pantomime, the progress of the development of New York for three centuries—1613–1913. After the Indian march and war-dance, the pageant practically opened with the scene representing the purchase of Manhattan for the Dutch by Peter Minuit (1626) for beads, knives, and ribbons valued at $24. Then came in historic succession the surrender of New Amsterdam to the English (1664); its rebirth under the English flag as New York; the Colonial period (1700), represented by a stately minuet, admirably rendered; the Slave period (1701), with its Pickaninny Dance to the music of the always popular "Dixie," followed by a chorus of "Suwanee River;" the Revolutionary period, with the "March of the Boys of 1776," excellently done; the Evacuation of New York by the English and General Washington's farewell of his officers (1783). The dances indicating the flood of immigration into this country by the Irish and Germans (1800) and by the Italians and Russians (1870–1880) were given with spirited animation by children displaying in their faces and forms the characteristics of the races they were portraying.

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Then came in rapid succession tableaux indicating the growth of Greater New York. The Grand Rally, when the five thousand children gathered around the flag, pledging their allegiance at the top of their voices, was a satisfactory ending to a pleasant afternoon, profitable for young and old alike. The work done reflects the highest credit on those who planned the pageant and on the instructors and the performers, and ought to be a step in the direction of the attainment of that unity of spirit and practice which must underlie successful popular government in our great cosmopolitan cities. It is the second big pageant of its kind given under the direction of the present Park Commissioner.

A Ripe Old Age

Like a romance reads the story of the career of Lord Strathcona, who, acccording to despatches from Ottawa, Canada, has announced his intention of resigning his post as Canadian High Commissioner to England when he reaches the ripe age of ninety-four, early next year. Whoever has read his biography has not missed anything of importance in the history of the Dominion for the past three-quarters of a century. Queen Victoria had just been crowned when Donald Smith, at the age of eighteen, left his home in Morayshire, Scotland, relinquishing the prospect of an easy life in the East Indian service to take his chances with adventure in the wild and isolated provinces which are now the Dominion; and since that day when the youth who is now Lord Strathcona threw in his lot with these provinces he has shared all their vicissitudes and more than any other man, perhaps, been responsible for their development. As a trader and factor with the Hudson's Bay Company he gained that familiarity with the denizens of the wild northwest regions that stood him in good stead later as Chief Commissioner to inquire into the causes of the Red River Rebellion. Sir Garnet Wolseley, who had been sent out to suppress the insurrection, said of Donald Smith, "His word was law in all that wide region." Perhaps the greatest service to the Provinces of this far-seeing Scot was consummated when he drove the last spike in the Canadian Pacific Railway and realized his dream of a United Canada. Sir Charles Tupper said that "only the pluck, energy, and determination of Lord Strathcona carried the Canadian Pacific Railway to success." The future lord also backed up James J. Hill in securing the Great Northern Railway, and Winnipeg is a monument to his foresight. After years of service in the Dominion Parliament, at the age of seventy-seven, when most men are ready to retire, he accepted the responsibilities of the High Commissionership to England, which he has held continuously despite changes in administrations. Sixty years after Donald Smith left his home for Canada he was made Lord Strathcona by the Queen who had just mounted to the throne when he left England. Lord Strathcona ascribes his remarkable health and longevity to his devotion to work. "Providence has favored me with a good constitution," he once said. "Then I have had plenty of work to do all my life, and there is no doubt that that is the best thing for keeping a man well and strong."

Target Practice

On the crest of a great three-sided mound of earth is perched a gray box on stilts. Grouped in and around the box a dozen officers are standing, their eyes on the distant channel that leads in from the ocean to the second largest city in the world. Over against the trees in the background is a row of these box-like buildings, mounted upon huge black cylinders of iron. Here, too, through the long slits that are cut just under the eaves can be seen faces, and, if one looks closely, the end of an instrument that might be a transit built for Gargantua. Inclosed and sheltered from the bay by the sharp-angled, grass-covered banks of the great earthen parapet is a sunken court, walled and paved with concrete. Within this depression perhaps a hundred men, as unmartial in appearance as the mechanics in a modern factory, clad in loose-fitting uniforms of dirty blue, are lounging. Here, too, crouched on turn-tables, are four great thick-lipped mortars, blunt of nose, squat of frame, impressive from their latent power and perfection of line. Suddenly on the great bare flagstaff that towers above the trees a red pennant rises. The soldiers, lounging no longer, swarm to their mortars. The half-ton projectiles are lifted on cranes, dropped on carriages, and rolled into position. The great breech-blocks are swung open, the projectiles shoved home with a deep-sounding "tsung," the powder rushed from the magazine at the last possible moment is seated with a careful push, and the breech-blocks swung to and locked almost too quickly for the eye to follow.

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Then the four mortars are turned, their expectant muzzles lifted high in the air, to await the direction for aiming the trial shot and the command to fire. Three bells are heard, and on the third a great leaping flare shoots upward, the earth shakes, a hot blast of air sweeps backwards over the pit, a whistling as of an army of rockets comes out of the sky, and high overhead, silhouetted against the clouds, a black dot mounts and melts to nothing. Ten, twenty, thirty, forty seconds pass, and where the water of the Sound meets the hazy horizon a white plume leaps upward and disappears. Around a distant point of land comes a tug towing a white, tent-like target some five hundred yards astern. Again and again at intervals of thirty seconds come the flash, the deafening report, and far in the distance the spurting column of water. Were the target a battle-ship, its guns would have long since been silenced.

Coast Defense

What does this target practice mean? To the civilian it is a superb spectacle, fraught with stupendous possibilities, which he glimpses according to the power of his individual imagination. The secrets of the little gray box-like sighting towers filled with keen-eyed men and instruments that have strayed out of the world of astronomy into the world of war are not his to fathom. Nor can he do more than guess at even that trained efficiency masked in the slouchy service uniforms of the private soldiers. To the officer this target practice is the one judge to which in times of peace he can submit his life-work for appraisal. This problem is not for the civilian to solve; it is for the civilian to supply him with the tools of his trade—with arms and men. As to how well our civilian government has performed this duty towards our coast defense service opinions differ. Across the channel from the fort we have sketched can be seen the parapet of another fort commanding a strategic point on our approach to the harbor of New York. Its great twelve-inch guns are manned with a squad just large enough to keep them clean. The four mortars we described were served by but one company of men, where three companies would be required in war. Soon the forts at Panama, at Hawaii, and the Philippines will still further reduce the number of men available for the defense of our own coasts. An absurd enlistment law, enacted for political purposes and reasons of false economy, has made it increasingly difficult to persuade men to enter the army. Common sense certainly demands that we be at least able to work the tools of war which we at present possess. Without men our coast defenses are like factories with idle looms. To change the figure, an army is an insurance policy against war. The Nation owes it to itself to keep its policy paid up to date.

Lawn Tennis

As a fitting climax for three months of as strenuous and brilliant work as devotees of lawn tennis can remember, Maurice E. McLoughlin has again won the American championship. Formerly the champion of one year was allowed the privilege of standing aside until the All-Comers' Tournament of the next year was finished; then the champion was called upon to play the winner of that tournament, or by default concede the championship to him. Now the rule requires the champion to enter the tournament like any other aspirant. McLoughlin was thus a "playing-through champion." He played through the tournament at Newport, Rhode Island, and won the final match on Tuesday of last week. Readers of The Outlook will remember the part taken by this young Californian in the matches against Australia, Germany, and England for the Davis Trophy, and the magnificent showing which he made in his fight for the championship of England. In the finals at Newport, which has witnessed so many historic struggles for the American championship, McLoughlin met his teammate of the Davis Cup series, R. Norris Williams, of Philadelphia. Like McLoughlin, Williams belongs to that younger generation of tennis players which has come into prominence with such disconcerting rapidity. Williams proved to be McLoughlin's most formidable antagonist. He handled his opponent's terrific service with comparative confidence, yet, despite this, succeeded in winning but one set out of the four played. This set, the second of the match, was the only one lost by McLoughlin during the progress of the tournament. The score of the final match follows: 6–4, 5–7, 6–3, 6–1.

The National Negro Business League

The fourteenth annual meeting of the National Negro Business League, recently held at Philadelphia, has served to call attention again to the steady progress which the Negro race in all parts of

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the country is making in farming, in business, and in the trades. Probably never in the history of this country has there come together so large an audience of respectable and substantial colored citizens as gathered in the Academy of Music, in Philadelphia, to listen to Dr. Booker T. Washington's annual address to the Business League and the colored citizens of Philadelphia. At this meeting and at all other sessions of the League this year special effort was made to emphasize the opportunities that are open to the Negro in the small towns and on the farms of the South. The number of Negro farmers who have risen to the position of plantation owners has measurably increased within recent years, and the stories of the successes which these men, starting with no capital and little education, have made can hardly fail to make an impression upon the younger generation, many of whom in our Northern cities are making a mean living as porters and window-washers or in some other dependent position. As indicating the progress which Negroes are making in the higher forms of commerce and corporate business, there was recorded at this meeting the completion, in the Negro town of Mound Bayou, Mississippi, of the first cottonseed oil mill erected and controlled by Negroes, and the establishment in Atlanta, Georgia, of the Standard Life Insurance Company, the first insurance company organized by Negroes and conducted under the safeguards and regulations of the old-line companies for whites. In order to complete this oil mill and establish this insurance company Negroes have had to bring together in each case a sum of money something over $100,000. The fact that this has been successfully accomplished, together with the testimony that was offered as to the character of these enterprises and the men who are conducting them, is a very proper subject for congratulation not only to the black people in every part of the country but to the many white people who are watching with interest and sympathy the struggle of the race to rise. The National Business League, in bringing together every year representatives of the solid, substantial, and successful members of the race, is performing a service not merely to the colored people but to the whole country. It is well, as Mr. Wanamaker remarked in his speech to the League, and as every good merchant knows, "to show your goods," and there is no better answer to the attempts that are sometimes made to depreciate the Negro race and limit its opportunities for advancement than the showing which the meetings of this League make from year to year of steady, silent progress of the masses of the people. There will be many attempts this year, when the Negro people are celebrating the fiftieth anniversary of their emancipation, to show, in expositions and otherwise, the progress of the race; but the Negro Business League is an annual exposition of the progress of the race, and it has the advantage that it not only exhibits the progress but it shows the men who are making it.

An International Prophet

Among the books on the United States there are two which have already become classics in the sense of being standard works of high authority and of permanent importance, and both books were written by foreigners. "The American Commonwealth" is already the foremost text-book on American institutions, and its author is one of the few men qualified to speak with authority on international matters. He has the candor of mind, the breadth of sympathy and of knowledge, which make him an intelligent observer and critic of foreign peoples. Most people have definite opinions of the English, Germans, French, and Japanese, which rest on the slenderest basis of knowledge and are not opinions in any true sense of the word; they are mere prejudices. There is still in this country a great deal of ignorance about other countries, and ignorance is the mother of hatred. In a recent debate in Congress a member spoke of the "Japanese pigtails;" his knowledge of Japan was evidently confined to China! Several years ago, in conversation with an American, two delightful old English women insisted that slavery had only recently been abolished in Massachusetts. This incident is offset by the inquiry of an American in Westminster Abbey: "To what denomination does this church belong?" The newspapers ought to dispel the illusions of ignorance, but unfortunately they often confirm national prejudices instead of dissipating them. There is no material which a sensational newspaper seizes with such enthusiasm and uses with such malicious skill as incidents and situations which excite national animosity. This is the easiest form of editorial writing, and the greater the ignorance of the writer the more effective is his effort to arouse slumber-

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ing hatred. The narrow local feeling still survives from the days when the thirteen colonies had only the slowest methods of communication and were suspicious of one another. To some New Yorkers the West is full of people whose ideas of finance are of a primitive looseness, and to some good people beyond the Mississippi New York is a den of stock gamblers. And when it comes to foreign countries the ignorance is still more dense and the prejudices still more unjus and misleading. We are only in the dawn of international knowledge,and those who have attained what Dr. N. M. Butler has happily called "the International Mind" are the prophets of a new and happier day.

East and West

In no field is this ignorance more dense and dangerous than in the relations between the East and West. Striking differences of habits of life and thought, great distances, and the habit of exploiting the East for commercial purposes, furnish rich material for the fostering of suspicion, animosity, and racial dislike. It is fortunate when a man of Mr. Bryce's ability and intelligence helps to dissipate the clouds of misunderstanding and let in the light. The author of "The American Commonwealth" is one of the prophets of the new age, and a speech recently made in Tokyo and reported in the columns of the "Japan Advertiser" has a refreshing insight and tone of human feeling :

He said that he had never believed in an antagonism of the East and the West. He thought the East needed the West and the West needed the East, and every nation needed every other nation commercially, for the exchange of products which was one of the best foundations upon which to rear international friendship. We needed to know th e truth in order to understand human nature in its entirety, the best of human nature, the grandeur of human nature, the progress which human nature had made from primitive man to its present state. We needed to know one another's history, national character, the qualities and powers of human nature under whatever guise or form they might appear, and in whatsoever different phenomena they might be conceived. And all this, in the large sense, it was the duty and the business of the press to endeavor to present, and he did hope that the press would feel that along with their great power there went the responsibility of endeavoring to minimize as much as possible all differences between nations, and that each nation should endeavor to appreciate what was best in the other in order that we might all feel that we were laboring for the common good of mankind. We had come to a period in the history of nations in which every nation was in touch with every other, and we were called upon now more than at any other time—although we had always been so called—but we were called upon more distinctly now because we were in closer contact, to endeavor to further the cause of peace and good feeling among nations, which was the greatest cause of all.

The Value of Music in Factories

Artistic as well as industrial circles in France have been aroused to lively discussion over the declaration of M. Jaques Vernes, the great financier and manufacturer, that the French people were falling behind in industrial efficiency, because the workman no longer sang at his bench. M. Vernes has put himself at the head of a national movement to revive music in mills, workshops, and on all governmental works in the Republic. His efforts have received the approval of the French Government. He argues that it was through the rhythmic movements of singing and dancing that the French workmen enabled the nation to hold dominance in many of the great industries of the past. He says, in speaking on this subject: "As rhythm is the principal base in all music, I have decided to introduce music in all the industries with which I am connected. I tried it in the Pyrenees, where we built many roads and bridges. The result was simply amazing. I took a squad of workmen, and on the days they sang they did better work, were in a better humor, and were far less fatigued than on days they did not sing. And I noticed that from the singing workmen there came fewer complaints. I verily believe that music is an effective remedy for many of the present ills of labor. The supreme hardship of most labor is physical and mental fatigue, which results from a lack of rhythm of action. I am convinced that the source of much of the discontent and the origin of many of the strikes are to be found here. But let me add that I would not introduce ragtime music or tango dancing among workmen to lighten their labor. I want to revive the time when every workman sang at his bench." M. Vernes also thinks that the spirit of commercialism as exemplified in Paris by American methods has had a depressing effect in France. While it has taught the nation much, it is in conflict with its nature. A counteracting influence is needed, and he believes he has found it in songs for the workers. Some American manufacturers are inclined to agree with M. Vernes that music is a good thing for the workman at his bench,

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and that perhaps it is as much needed here as in France, but they think that it would be more difficult to get workers in our big mills and factories to sing than in France. The French workingmen are more homogeneous, they are more given to humming airs at work or play, and a French song is more contagious. But if we needed evidence of the great value of music in labor, the habits of the colored people of the South would furnish it. All the railways of that section have been built under the inspiration and rhythmic swing of Negro melodies, and the tobacco factories in Kentucky, Virginia, and the Carolinas are run by Negro music. It was said that Negroes failed as operators in a North Carolina cotton mill some years ago because they could not hear their voices above the roar of the machinery. Foremen encourage them to sing even while paving streets in Southern cities. It is a fact, however, that the Negro does not sing as much as he used to.

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Mud Baths or the Jail?

The farmers and working people of China, who have long been at the mercy of local and provincial politicians and have suffered all kinds of extortion at their hands, are awakening to a sense of their power of protecting themselves by co-operation. The organization of a Mutual Protection Society in the town of Hsienhsien, in the province of Chihli, is significant of the spread of a new idea of the purpose of government through a country which has hitherto endured government as an inevitable evil and has just begun to think of it as a means of securing the general welfare. The farmers and fishermen who have organized this society in Hsienhsien, suspecting that the local educational authorities and the District Council were imposing taxes which were entirely out of proportion to the benefits returned, made an investigation in approved Western fashion and discovered that large sums had been collected for public projects which had not been put through. A recent disastrous flood was due to the failure to carry out certain work on a neighboring river for which the funds had been provided, and the officials have been enjoying festivities and "joy rides" at public expense. The inquisitive people, having started on these investigations, went so far as to inspect the accounts kept by the officials, an almost unprecedented event in China. The result has been, on the legal side, the presentation of charges against the offending officials and, on the emotional side, the beating of one of the guilty men, the removal of his clothing, and his subjection to a mud bath—a form of punishment which has an obvious symbolic fitness. Americans will be interested to know which form of punishment proves most effective. Many municipal thieves in this country have suffered both penalties; the newspapers have given them mud baths and the courts have sent them to the penitentiary.

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Training Their Own Employees

For several years past the leaders of the educational world have been calling for an advance along the line of vocational education. The remarkable results achieved through the "continuation schools" of the German Empire for more than forty years have furnished the best arguments for the advocates of the system. At last the public mind is beginning to waken, until now practically every great National organization—commercial, industrial, social, and economic, in addition to educational bodies—has given its support to the attempts made in Congress to secure grants from the National treasury for vocational education. The American Federation of Labor at one end of the list and the National Association of Manufacturers at the other have joined with the Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America and the National Educational Association in demanding this advance in our system of public school education. While the great, slow-moving public has been making up its mind, certain great business interests—which could not wait—have been busy training their own employees. At the very opposite pole to all sentimentalism or pseudo-philanthropy stands the National Association of Corporation Schools, which holds its first annual convention at Dayton, Ohio, September 16 to 19. The corporations which are banded together in this effort to educate their own employees are frankly and openly committed to the principle that it pays the company in dollars and cents to educate its workmen in order to increase their efficiency. Some of the companies have been offering night school courses to their own employees for years; others have more recently opened schools for the instruction of their apprentices or salesmen, compelling them to attend during the working day and paying them for the time spent in school; while still

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other companies look forward to the establishment of high grade technical courses to be offered free to their employees. The list of the corporations associated for this purpose is a notable one. Among others there are the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, the American Locomotive Company, the General Electric Company, the Public Service Corporation of New Jersey, and many others, representing more than two billion dollars capital and affecting the welfare of 230,000 employees. Universities and colleges have recognized the movement as a link long sought between institutions of learning and the business world. So it comes to pass that such men as Charles P. Steinmetz, inventor; Dr. Lee Galloway, of New York University, and others, have been elected officers in the new movement that may become the means of modifying our entire educational system. It is the purpose of the National Association of Corporation Schools to "render new corporation schools successful from the start, by warning them against the pitfalls into which others have fallen, and to provide a forum where corporation school officers may interchange experiences and so improve the instruction in their respective institutions." Altogether the movement is a most helpful and promising one.

A School for Delinquent Boys

Since the revelation of shocking conditions in the Brooklyn Disciplinary Training School for Boys, following the investigations four years ago of the State Charities Aid Association and the State Board of Charities, the latter inquiry at the instigation of Governor Hughes, the improvement in conditions at the institution has been very gratifying. As the result of those investigations, it will be remembered, the Superintendent and the House Mother were discharged and the directors of the school removed, with the exception of Mr. Ephraim Byk, whose complaints led to the exposé. The immorality then exposed apparently exists no more, and other reforms have been accomplished. Much remains to be done, however, if the two hundred or more boys in the school on commitment from the Children's Courts for juvenile delinquency are to be given a fair chance for development. The present buildings at Fifty-eighth Street and Eighth Avenue, Brooklyn, are described by Mr. Byk as "dilapidated firetraps, utterly inadequate to the needs of the school." Two years ago at his recommendation the city appropriated $75,000 for the purchase of 300 acres for a new site at Melville, Long Island, where it was planned to erect ten or more cottages and put twenty boys in each under the care of a responsible man and his wife, to act as house father and house mother. Most of the boys come from homes which they are only too glad to leave, or from no homes at all, and this cottage system would fill a long-felt want. The boys would get wholesome exercise in the open air through work on the farm, in addition to the recreation which they now find in the carpentry, shoemaking, tailoring, and printing shops of the establishment. But unexpected opposition was encountered from politicians who wanted the boys committed to sectarian institutions in which they had an interest. Last winter Mr. Byk succeeded in killing in committee a bill to abolish the school, but enemies of the institution persevered, and recently the city revoked the appropriation. This followed the recommendations of the Commissioner of Accounts that the school be abolished on December 31, 1913, its functions to be fulfilled by the State Training School for Boys, the House of Refuge, and private religious institutions. In a brief submitted to Mayor Gaynor by the Board of Managers of the Brooklyn school, it is pointed out that the State Training School will not be completed for a year and will then be, like the House of Refuge, a place for long-term offenders and hardened juveniles, whereas the boys sent to the Brooklyn school are not hardened cases. On the other hand, they are nevertheless delinquents, and it would no more do to put them with the truants in private establishments than to put smallpox cases in an accident ward. Lastly, the private schools have refused to accept such short-term cases, and the Magistrates of the Children's Courts have gone on record unanimously as favoring the retention of the Brooklyn Disciplinary Training School or the establishment of an adequate substitute.

The Sun a Magnet

Few great discoveries are made by chance—most of them are due to long and persistent work directed toward the end in view. The latest example of the latter kind is the recently announced discovery of Dr. George E. Hale, Director of the Mount Wilson Solar Observatory in California, that the sun is a magnet.

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For many years observers of total eclipses of our great luminary had noted the peculiar arrangement of the rays of the solar corona, the beautiful pearly halo surrounding the sun, which can be seen only during the fleeting moments of totality. These luminous rays are arranged in very much the same manner as the lines of iron filings in the well-known laboratory experiment showing the lines of force around a magnet. This appearance led to the surmise that the sun had magnetic properties. Surmise, however, is one thing and proof another. The recent work of Dr. Hale has now supplied the latter. The proof is long and technical. Suffice it to say that it depends upon certain peculiar properties in the vibrations of light, if the source of the light is under the influence of a magnet. These peculiarities are shown when the light is passed through an instrument called a spectrograph, which analyzes the light into its constituent colors in a manner analogous to the formation of a rainbow. This band of color is photographed, and the departure of the colors from their normal positions furnishes the evidence. In this instance the change in the colors of sunlight from their normal positions was exceedingly slight. It was necessary to measure distances only a small fraction of the thickness of a hair. The work was begun five years ago; but the best appliances of that time were not sufficiently powerful to give consistent results. New apparatus was then designed and built. This included a vertical telescope 150 feet in height and a spectrograph 75 feet long, the latter being placed in an underground chamber of constant temperature. After the new equipment has been set up, the work was resumed. Every effort was made to guard against error in securing the photographic observations, as it was recognized that the quantities to be determined were exceedingly small, and that the slightest error in instrumental adjustment might either mask them entirely or else give fictitious results. Finally, after hundreds of plates had been used and measured with infinite care, the end of the preliminary work was reached and the discovery announced this summer. But, just as every great piece of work requires time and care for its perfection, so this one will demand additional years of painstaking effort before the magnetic properties of the sun are fully known. However, even this preliminary work has shown more than the mere fact that the sun is a great spherical magnet. In the course of the investigation it was found that the solar magnetic poles are near the poles of rotation, possibly much nearer than the corresponding poles of the earth, and that the north magnetic pole of the sun attracts the same end of the compass-needle as the earth's north magnetic pole. The full significance of this new discovery is difficult to estimate; but there is no question that it is one of the most important scientific achievements of recent years. It may, for example, lead to the explanation of the earth's magnetism—a problem which has been baffling the scientific world for centuries. Its greatest significance, however, appears to lie in the fact that it introduces a new element which must be taken into consideration in dealing with many cosmical problems.

PETER AND FUSION

Young Peter, his wife, and his three children have left the farm and moved to town. Also the Fusion campaign in New York City is on. There's a connection between these two events.

Why is young Peter leaving the farm and taking his family to town?

Perhaps Peter himself would mention as the first reason the fine offer he received from a manufacturing concern. His own talents, such as they are, incline him strongly to any kind of work with mechanisms. Alone on the farm he could tinker here and mend there, but in this offered position he believes he can accomplish something worth while, and make a living in the line of his temperamental preference.

Really as controlling is Peter's consideration for his wife. He feels that she has had too much drudgery and too little of other things in life. Peter wants to have her have the advantages of the town. She likes music, and so does Peter himself in a shamefaced way; but they have no chance to hear any on the farm except what they can make themselves or their phonograph can reproduce. They read books together; but they haven't many. There's a library in town. And then there's the theater. Peter, as well as his wife, enjoys a good play. In town they can see one now and then. The burdens that have weighed heavily on the shoulders of Peter's wife have been borne long enough, Peter thinks, and he is going to take her where she can have something else.

Then there are the children. On the farm

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they have been well enough; in fact, very well for the most part; but Peter will never forget the anxiety of last summer when the youngest one was ill and the doctor seemed very far away. Peter hesitated a long while about taking his children from the open-air life they had been living; but after reading somewhere that the death rate in New York City was lower than in the rural districts of the State, he felt easier on that score. As to the children's education, there was nothing to hesitate about. The little district school a mile and a half from the farm was just better than no school at all; while in town even the slum children, with the public schools, and the settlements, and the boys' and girls' clubs, and what not, had a thousand times better chance than any child on that farm could have. At least so Peter thought. He may have underestimated the education that the farm itself could give, though he did not overlook it.

Finally, and this sums it all up, Peter was going where there were people, and where people, acting together and living together, could do more for themselves than any of them could do alone.

There are a great many Peters, and Peters' wives, and Peters' children. People are going to the city by scores and by thousands because they feel that there life is more expanding than in the country—more civilized.

They go to the city because men can do together in the city work that they could not do alone, because they can defend themselves together against their enemies, whether they be human foes or the hostile forces of disease; can, by acting together, educate and train themselves and their children; can enjoy together a common social life in the city as they cannot in the country. People live together in the city on grounds, then, of common industry, common protection, common education, and common social life.

The prime purposes of the government of a great city should be the promotion of these objects on behalf of all the people of the city—the promotion of a sound, just, and efficient industrial life, of an effective system of mutual protection, of a constantly improving plan for the education and development of the children and the adults of the city, and of a wholesome, happy, and civilizing social life.

It is important that a city should have clean and well-paved streets, and a good police department, and good methods of transportation. No city can be called really well governed which does not supply these and administer them efficiently and economically. After all, however, these things are incidental to the main purposes for which people go to live in cities. They do not go there to build streets, or to arrest one another, or merely to travel back and forth. They travel back and forth, they establish a police force, they build and keep streets in repair, for the purpose of furthering their real ends of work—self-protection, education, self-development, diversion, social life.

Sometimes such things as playgrounds and parks, recreation piers, museums and libraries, school lunches, municipal theaters, municipal markets, model tenements, social centers, have been discussed as if they were frills and furbelows. As a matter of fact, they come very close to the real objects for which cities exist.

Great are the advantages produced by cities. The great civilizations of the past have expressed themselves in cities: Babylon, Jerusalem, Athens, Rome, Venice—the very name of each of these cities is emblematic of some phase of human advancement. We do not think of their streets, or their police, or their means of transportation. We think rather of their literature, or their commercial triumphs, or their religious ideals, or their schools of learning, or their treasures of art. These are the things for which cities exist.

What has all this to do with the Fusion campaign in New York City in this year of grace?

No one knows what are the prizes of city life better than some of the enemies of the city. These are they who make these prizes a matter of privilege. The curse of Tammany Hall upon the city of New York is not merely that it has allowed the streets to be scandalously ill repaired and unclean, that it has allowed the police force to become corrupted at the top, and that it has encouraged graft in providing for means of transit; but that it has kept the benefits of city life in large measure from the mass of the people and turned them over as far as it dared to the privileged and favored few. By its misgovernment it has made, on the one hand, the slums, and, on the other hand, the rich grafters. It has craftily seized on the inheritance of the people, and by doling out alms and charities it has kept the appearance of

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care for the popular welfare while it has divided the major part of the inheritance among its own followers and favorites. That is why Tammany is the enemy of the people of New York. That is why Tammany has opposed, in the name of conservative business, every movement to make the government of the city of New York a people's government. It is Tammany that has blocked the efforts to supply New York with better parks and playgrounds. It is Tammany that has made slow the progress out of the old conditions, when tenement-houses produced money for the few and disease for the many.

The Fusion fight in New York is a fight not primarily on behalf of the taxpayer that his taxes may not be exorbitant, though it is in part that, nor primarily a fight to secure efficient administrators of the business of the city as a corporation, though it is that in part also; it is chiefly a fight on behalf of just such people as Peter and his family; a fight on behalf of the people who, unlike Peter, were born and bred in the city, but stay there because of the same reasons that have brought Peter into it; a fight to see that the benefits of city life which Peter is seeking for his wife, his children, and himself go to them; that the city of New York is a place in which it will be good to work, good to get an education, good to find wholesome recreation, good to enjoy the treasures of literature and of the arts, good to meet and live with people—good not for a few but for all.

That is the fight that is on whenever a municipal election approaches in almost every city of the land; that is the fight that is on between the forces of Tammany and the forces of Fusion. This is what is meant by the Fusion campaign for economy in administration: that the people's money be not so wasted that the people are denied the full benefits of its use. This is what is meant by efficiency in administration: that the servants of the people be not outclassed by the servants of special interests, that no group of powerful individuals within the city should have command of greater ability and expert service than the people as a whole. This is what is meant by the attack on graft and official collusion with the criminal and the vicious: that the machinery of city government be not manipulated to the advantage of the worst elements in the city and to the profit of a few corruptionists, but that it be controlled in the interest of all the people.

This is what the municipal campaign in New York City this year signifies; this is what every municipal campaign should signify—not merely a campaign against corruption and inefficiency, but a campaign on behalf of a cityful of people.

THE PRESIDENT'S MEXICAN POLICY

The Mexican question is for the American people a double question: First, What is the duty of a strong and prosperous nation like the United States to a neighbor torn by civil dissensions and without a government which has either the moral right to govern or the power to fulfill the fundamental function of government, the protection of persons and property? Second, What is its duty to Americans and other non-Mexicans in that unhappy country, where persons and property are not protected? President Wilson deals with this question in his Message in an admirable spirit. And in the main his policy as there outlined seems to The Outlook to be wisely conceived, and we hope it will be carried out.

I. For knowledge of the facts in Mexico the people are dependent on three sources of information: letters from Americans resident in Mexico; the newspaper press; official information. The first are almost certain to be colored by personal and pecuniary considerations; the second are likely to be affected by political and commercial bias and by the desire for sensation. The official information is more trustworthy than either private letters or press correspondence. When the President informs Congress, and through Congress the people of the United States and of the world, that affairs are growing worse, not better, in Mexico, and that "war and disorder, devastation and confusion, seem to threaten to become the settled future of the distracted country," we must assume that this is the truth.

II. It would be immoral for the United States to recognize this government. There are two possible grounds for such recognition: A *de facto* government may demand and receive recognition, because it does in fact govern; does preserve law and order and maintain peace. On this ground the world powers had no choice but to recognize the Government of Napoleon III, although it was founded on a *coup d'état*. A

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de jure government may ask recognition when it is clearly in the right, and recognition may be granted in order to aid it to acquire the stability necessary to protect persons and property and maintain peace. Of this an illustration is afforded by our course in Panama. But the Huerta Government is neither *de jure* nor *de facto*. It is not *de jure*, for it was initiated by crime and is founded on crime. It is not *de facto*, for it has not the power to perform the most elemental functions of government.

III. Intervention for the purpose of performing these elemental functions, that is, protecting persons and property in Mexico, ought not to be undertaken except under the most imperious necessity.

Because intervention by one nation in the domestic affairs of another nation is never to be attempted if it can be avoided.

Because intervention might arouse against the American people the bitter and implacable hostility of practically the entire Mexican people, and the suspicion if not the enmity of the Central American and the South American Republics.

Because it would entail upon the United States a problem the extent, duration, complexity, and expense of which it is impossible to forecast.

IV. There remains the policy outlined by President Wilson, well entitled the policy of "isolation." It may be described in a sentence thus: Refuse moral support to the immoral and incompetent government of Huerta; draw a cordon around Mexico for the purpose of preventing the shipment from the United States of munitions of war to any of the factions which are now keeping the country in anarchy; keep steadily before the people of Mexico the assurances of our friendship and the offer of our good offices; and wait.

V. The advice to Americans to leave Mexico if they can has been questioned and may be questionable. But it can be defended on three grounds:

First, that, accompanied by provision for their transportation, it gives to possibly hundreds of our fellow-citizens opportunity of escape from an intolerable condition of suffering and peril.

Second, it emphasizes to the Mexican Government and to the world powers our conviction that Mexico is in a condition of anarchy, with no government able to perform the functions or worthy to assume the name.

Third, it avoids, as far as possible, the semblance of weakness by the warning that those who are responsible for the sufferings and losses of Americans unable to get away will be held to a strict accounting by the United States.

VI. In all dealings with foreign nations it is the duty of the American Nation to maintain a coherent and continuous policy. As long as the United States has been a Nation it has been its policy to defend its citizens from oppression and injustice in every part of the world. For this we fought with Great Britain the War of 1812. That policy must not be abandoned now. The Outlook has no reason to apprehend that President Wilson intends to abandon it. It is also the duty of the American people to maintain a united front toward other peoples, to disregard all partisan considerations, and as far as possible to subordinate to the National judgment individual opinions upon questions of detail. In doing so they must necessarily act through the Administration in power. For this reason we are glad to see the policy of the Administration receiving the warm support of Progressives and Republicans in Congress, and we hope that it will receive such a support from the country as will convince the Huerta Government that it has no defenders on this side of the border.

THE PHILIPPINES IN POLITICS?

By the appointment of Francis Burton Harrison to be Governor-General of the Philippines, and the consequent displacement of the present Governor-General, Cameron Forbes, President Wilson has raised in the minds of many who are jealous for the fine record which the United States has made in those islands no little grave concern.

Some of the arguments against the retention of the Philippines as a dependency by the United States have been quite ignored by the American people. These are the arguments which have appealed to purely selfish considerations. In the American people there runs a strain of idealism; and with regard to the Philippines this idealistic strain has shown itself most conspicuously in the attitude of the American people and their Government. To those who have argued that the Philippines would bring to this country no profit, but rather a loss, that the pacification of the islands would call for the sacrifice

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of men and of property with no material reward, the people of the United States have paid practically no heed.

When, however, it was argued that the task of governing a dependency was one for which by training and tradition the American Republic was unfitted, that it called not only for experience in colonial government which the Americans lacked, but also for a separation of such government from considerations of party politics, the American people were more inclined to listen. Could the President of the United States and Congress forget party politics long enough to decide questions that concerned the Filipinos purely in the Filipinos' interests?

From the beginning of the Philippine experiment The Outlook believed that they could. The history of the last fifteen years has been justifying that belief. First the Philippines were put into the charge of the army, and the army's freedom from party politics was never more clearly exhibited than in the work that the army did in the Philippine Archipelago. Under the administration of the first Civil Governor, Mr. Taft, this record of freedom from politics continued. When a successor to Mr. Taft was required because of Mr. Taft's appointment as Secretary of War, the Republican President chose a Democrat, and he chose him because this Democrat had had experience in the Philippines as a member of the Philippine Commission. General Wright's successor was selected by the same Republican President from among the men who had had experience in the civil government of the Philippines. Mr. Ide had had even wider experience than in the Philippine Islands, for before being Vice-Governor of the Philippines, before being even a member of the Philippine Commission, he had been United States Commissioner to Samoa, and then, under the joint appointment of the Governments of England, Germany, and the United States, Chief Justice of Samoa. The fact that he was a Republican had no weight in his appointment, one way or another. Whether his successor, James F. Smith, was a Democrat or a Republican we do not believe that one out of a thousand of our readers could tell. We are under the impression that he was a Democrat; but what was of controlling consideration in his appointment was the fact that he had served in the Philippines first as an army officer, during which time he was in turn Deputy Provost-Marshal of Manila, member of the Commission to confer with the Commission from Aguinaldo, Military Governor of the Island of Negros, and Collector of Customs for the Philippines, thus as an army officer having not only military but administrative experience in the islands; then later he served as Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the Philippines, and afterwards as member of the Philippine Commission and Secretary of Public Instruction. His successor is the man who has now been supplanted, Cameron Forbes, who, before he became Governor, was in turn a member of the Philippine Commission and Secretary of Commerce and Police in the Government, and then Vice-Governor.

In this history of the Governorship of the Philippine Islands the United States has been following up what may be well regarded as perhaps the best in the traditions of the colonial government of Great Britain.

Under how many political changes of administration in the British Government at London the Earl of Cromer remained undisturbed at his post in Egypt, President Wilson, who is a student of history, could probably tell at once. During the period from 1883 until 1907 the political complexion of the House of Commons and the British Government seesawed back and forth between Conservative and Liberal. But, more than that, Lord Cromer was experienced in the problems of colonial government before he was appointed. He was in turn private secretary to the Governor-General of India, Commissioner on the Egyptian Public Debt, Comptroller-General of Egypt, Financial Member of the Council of the Governor-General of India. In view of the very brief experience of the United States in the government of dependencies, the similarity of the previous records of the Governors-General of the Philippines and of the great British administrator in Egypt is remarkable.

The contrast which President Wilson has now offered to the country is one which to the friends of good government both in the United States and in the Philippines is painful.

What is the record of the man whom President Wilson has selected to succeed Cameron Forbes? In the first place, he has had not the slightest experience in the administration of dependencies, not the slightest experience with those delicate and difficult problems that arise in personal relations between a dependent people and their governing authorities. He has indeed had, so

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far as we can find out, no administrative experience whatever. He has been a member of Tammany Hall ever since he has been in public life, and during his terms as a member of Congress he has been not only a strong Democratic partisan, but a faithful member of the group of Tammany Congressmen. He voted along with other Tammany men to sustain the Cannon régime and the Cannon methods. We have heard no adequate, no even plausible, explanation for his appointment—except one. Mr. Harrison is a member of the Ways and Means Committee in Congress. The Chairman of this Committee has succeeded to the former powers of the Speaker, and is an almost autocratic party leader. The present Chairman of that Committee, Mr. Underwood, may possibly go into the Senate. If the selection of his successor as Chairman were made by seniority, Mr. Harrison would be chosen. The leaders of the party, so the explanation runs, want, not Mr. Harrison, but another member of the Committee to succeed, and the easy thing is to get Mr. Harrison to step out by asking him to step up.

We are far from saying that this is the true explanation of Mr. Harrison's appointment, but of all the explanations we have heard it is the only one that even approaches the plausible. That questions regarding the policy of Philippine independence have entered into this selection we cannot seriously believe. Mr. Harrison has had no special qualification for coming to any conclusion regarding such a policy, or of adapting and modifying administrative methods in accordance with such a policy. We describe, for instance, elsewhere the report recently issued concerning slavery in the Philippines. There is nothing to indicate in the slightest degree that Mr. Harrison has any qualifications whatever in dealing with such a difficult problem, whether in the light of one policy concerning Philippine independence or another. The fact, if it is a fact, that Manuel Quezon, the Filipino delegate to Congress, recommended Mr. Harrison's appointment is of no relevance except as it indicates that to the mixture of American partisan politics with Philippine affairs there is added the ingredient of Filipino party politics.

The office of the Governor-General of the Philippine Islands is the greatest administrative office that is filled by the appointing power of the President of the United States. It is reasonable for the American people to expect and require that it shall not be made the means of rewarding party workers or building up party organizations.

BLOT THEM OUT!

A man in his youth was profane, impure, and dishonest. Then the horror of his sin came upon him. In the eyes of the world his would be called but the beginnings of sin, but to himself he stood in the line with the blasphemous, libertines, and bank defaulters. He made the fullest reparation in his power, and no one was hurt, and *no one knew of his sins*. The years went by, and he was beloved, honored, and respected in the community, the husband of a pure, devoted wife, and the father of beautiful children. Is this man a hypocrite and still in sin because he cannot endure the shame and suffering of laying before the world and his beloved ones the truth of his earlier years? And—are repentance and remorse the same?

To both questions emphatically No! Repentance is abandonment of sin; not from fear of its consequences, but from a hatred of sin itself. He who has abandoned sin and done all in his power to repair the evil which the sin has wrought has experienced full and adequate repentance. No sorrow is of any use which does not lead to such abandonment.

When the sin has been thus abandoned, the wrong-doer has simply to ask himself, How can I best promote the life of purity and goodness and truth in my own life and in the life of my fellow-man? To lay before the world and one's loved ones the history of past sins, long since abandoned, has no tendency to promote the life of purity, goodness, and truth. It would have rather the reverse tendency. The Bible says that when we have repented of our sins God buries them in the depths of the sea, blots them out of the book of his remembrance, remembers them no more against us forever. We are to follow his example. When we have abandoned our sins and made all the reparation possible, we are then to bury them in the depths of the sea, blot them out of the book of our remembrance, remember them no more forever. Bunyan in his "Pilgrim's Progress" illustrates this truth. When the Pilgrim came to the Cross of Christ, the burden which he had been bearing rolled off from his shoulders and disappeared, and he saw it no more. It would have been worse than folly for him to have turned around, gone back to his burden, and bound it on his back again, that he might show it to his fellow-travelers as he went upon his journey.

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The difference between remorse and repentance is illustrated by the contrasted experiences of Judas Iscariot and Peter. Both felt sorry for their sin. Judas showed his sorrow by endeavoring to escape from it by self-destruction; Peter by a new life of loyalty and service.

WHAT IS THE USE OF COLLEGES?

Mr. Edward Bok, by his correspondence with college men and women and his article in The Outlook giving the results of that correspondence and his conclusions thereon, has rendered the American public a valuable service. It is well worth while for the institution as for the individual to be brought occasionally to the judgment bar of public opinion and asked the question, What are you doing for the public? And this is especially desirable when the institution is supported by the public, as the college is supported by tuition fees, private endowments, and often by State appropriations.

We do not agree with Mr. Bok that the 1,426 students who failed to reply to his inquiry were guilty of discourtesy. A stamped return envelope does not entail upon the receiver a moral obligation to reply. A has no right to determine how B shall employ his time; no more right to *demand* that time by a written than by a personal interview. How he shall employ his time is a question which B must determine for himself.

On the other hand, those who defend the college on the ground that it is not the function of the college to teach spelling, writing, and grammar appear to us to miss the real question. The college does not merely teach, it certifies. The degree of A.B. signifies, or ought to signify, that he who possesses it is fairly well educated. He who cannot write an intelligible English letter is not fairly well educated. The object of an entrance examination is to ascertain whether the candidate for admission is sufficiently educated to enter college. The object of the final examination is to ascertain whether the candidate for graduation is sufficiently educated to graduate. If he cannot write an intelligible English letter, he ought not to be allowed to enter college; if he has lost that ability, he ought not to be allowed to graduate. It is not the business of college to teach arithmetic or geography. But if the student cannot perform a simple sum in addition and does not know what is the capital of the United States, he should not be allowed to enter college, still less to graduate with college honors. It is not the business of the college to teach English grammar; but it is the business of the college to ascertain whether its students know enough of English grammar to write grammatically. The degree of A.B. ought to mean something; and it certainly ought to mean that the Bachelor of Arts knows the fundamentals of the language of his country.

And it is very easy to ascertain.

Hampton Institute requires every applicant for admission to write a letter applying for admission. The American college might well follow the example of Hampton Institute. It might well require every candidate for admission to write a letter applying for admission, and giving in his letter necessary information, such as his address, the names of his parents, his residence, when and how he prepared for college, etc. If this letter were misspelled, ungrammatical, illegible, his application should be refused. Typewritten letters should be declined.

The University of Texas, we are told, requires every college exercise in writing to be grammatically and intelligibly written. That seems to us right. Every written exercise, whether in science, philosophy, history, or literature, might well be subjected to a double examination and required to come up to a double standard. It should give satisfactory evidence of accuracy of information and serious thinking; but it should also give satisfactory evidence that the writer knows how to express his information and his thoughts in grammatical and correctly spelled English. No illiterate person should be allowed to enter college, or to go on with his college course if he succeeded in squeezing in, or to graduate if he succeeded in escaping detection until his finals.

Mr. Bok is abundantly able to defend himself, and we are not writing to defend him. But we do not understand that he wants the college to prepare men for business. This certainly is not our demand. But we do demand, and we have a right to demand, that it prepare men and women for life. For we hold these two propositions to be axiomatic:

The business of education is the development of character.

The test of character is ability to live a useful and happy life.

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THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON SCHOOL HYGIENE

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE OF THE OUTLOOK

We suggest that every reader of The Outlook who, as parent, teacher, member of school board, or taxpayer, has an interest in the public school system read this piece of correspondence carefully.—THE EDITORS.

TWELVE hundred delegates, representing twenty countries, met in Buffalo, New York, last week for the fourth International Congress on School Hygiene. The Congress continued for a full week, and was divided into several sections, at which many phases of the broad subjects of health, instruction, and disease prevention were discussed. There were several general meetings to which the public was admitted, and at which audiences that filled the big convention hall in which these meetings were held indicated the interest that has been awakened in this subject. A feature of the Congress that attracted a great number of visitors was the exhibition of hygienic equipment and methods of health instruction. The exhibits filled another large hall, and thousands of residents of the city and visitors from all parts of the United States and Canada passed through it daily. In conjunction with the Congress a National conference on the education of backward, truant, delinquent, and dependent children, and a meeting of the National Probation Association, were held for a discussion of the work of juvenile courts and of the allied problems of delinquency. The American Physical Education Association also held its meeting in Buffalo during the week.

While this was the fourth World Congress held to consider the subject of school hygiene, it was the first to meet in the western hemisphere. The Congresses are held at intervals of three years. The first assembled at Nuremberg in 1904, the second at London in 1907, and the third at Paris in 1910. The holding of the fourth meeting in the United States was a timely recognition of the fact that this country is just beginning to realize that the care of the health of children during the period of school life is at least equal in importance to the mental training which the school curriculum regularly undertakes to impart. That the whole civilized world is undergoing an awakening on this subject is perhaps the most valuable lesson of the Congress. Reports on health work in the schools of Argentina, Mexico, and Japan showed that scientific and progressive methods are being adopted in the schools of those countries; and the delegate from Argentina, after reporting on the plans for a rapid extension of the work in his country, invited the Congress to hold its next meeting in Buenos Aires.

One who had attended many gatherings of scientific or educational bodies was immediately impressed at Buffalo with the difference in atmosphere and spirit from the usual meeting of this sort. Most of the delegates to the Congress were medical men or educators, yet the Congress was unlike either a convocation of physicians or a pedagogical convention. It suggested rather an assemblage of men and women representing a new profession, a profession that has not quite found itself. There was the keenest interest in the comparison of ideas that have been evolved from practical experience in different countries. It was evident that the practice of school hygiene has not yet become fully standardized. Different communities have taken up different divisions of the main problem. In some cities special attention has been given to medical inspection, in others to the provision of sanitary school buildings, and in others to the instruction of mentally exceptional children, while in all there are important and impressive problems that have received little or no attention.

The keynote of the Congress was supplied in the welcoming address of Dr. John H. Finley, who is retiring from the presidency of the College of the City of New York to become the head of the Educational Department of the State of New York. Dr. Finley described school hygiene as the conservation of human power. As one listened to the various papers, viewed the exhibits, and heard the experiences detailed by medical inspectors, school nurses, and instructors, during the progress of the Congress, one became more and more impressed with the accuracy of this definition and with the fact that it is far more adequate as a descrip-

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tion of the end and aim of school hygiene than is the official title of the Congress.

It is impossible within the brief limits of this correspondence to give more than a suggestion of the wide range of subjects covered by the discussions of the Congress. Elaborate consideration was given to the construction, ventilation, heating, illumination, and cleansing of school buildings. The proper place and equipment of open-air schools received much discussion. The experience of Oakland, California, with open-air instruction was summed up in the requirement that at least one open-air room must be provided in every new building erected. A somewhat novel and striking suggestion on school construction was advanced by Sir James Grant, of Canada, who opposed the building of ornate and expensive school buildings and urged the advantages of buildings that could be easily razed to meet changing conditions.

The importance of examinations to discover and correct defects of vision in school-children was illustrated by statistics showing that 31,000, or 26 per cent, of the children in the rural schools of New York suffered from defective eyesight, as shown by an examination in 1912, and from evidence that this represents only an average condition. Many instances were cited of children whose backwardness in studies had been remedied merely by supplying proper glasses or by correcting other slight defects of vision. A striking instance of transition from backwardness to competency, through the correction of what once would have passed as a trivial defect, was reported by Miss Lillian Murney, of Cleveland, before the section on mouth hygiene. This was the case of a girl in one of the Cleveland schools whose teeth were badly impacted. Her eyes were crossed, and her mental development was far below that of other children of her own age. Removal of the offending teeth was followed by the disappearance of the eye-crossing, and the child began to make rapid progress toward the mental standards of other children of her own age. While this was an exceptional case, it affords striking evidence of the practical value of medical school inspection and of school clinics.

The problem of safeguarding children against the spread of communicable diseases, especially in rural and village communities where hospital care for contagious diseases is not available, was one of the important subjects considered by the Congress. Testimony from every hand showed that the value of efficient medical inspection is now so widely recognized that such inspection is made compulsory in many countries and cities. Dr. Finley called attention to the fact that the Legislature of New York during the present year passed a law requiring medical inspection in all the schools of the State, both urban and rural.

One of the subjects that received a large share of attention was that of mental hygiene and the mentality of the abnormal child. The discussions of this subject, the mental hygiene exhibit, and the psychological clinics were all largely attended, and particular interest was manifested in the results obtained in schools and classes devoted to the training of those children whose mentality is sub-normal. The policy of segregation and social control of mental defectives was strongly advocated by President Charles W. Eliot and by others who discussed this subject.

Of all the topics before the Congress, the one that aroused the greatest amount of interest and discussion was that of the proper place of instruction in sex hygiene in the schools. This was due partly, of course, to the fact that such instruction is newer than that in other branches of school hygiene, and partly to the widespread popular agitation of the subject at the present time. In fact, so great was the interest displayed in this question that a special session was devoted to it in addition to the regular sections that had been provided for. This session was presided over by President Eliot, and was among the most noteworthy of the week.

While there was substantial agreement as to the necessity of instruction in sex hygiene, it was noticeable that two divergent groups of opinion developed as to the part that the school should take in providing such instruction, as to the methods that should be employed, and as to the age at which such teaching should begin.

On the one hand, the radicals on this subject declared that instruction in sex hygiene should begin in the elementary classes, with illustrations of the reproduction of life from the world of plants and flowers, and that the teaching of this subject should be carried forward through the grammar school, high school, and college. They argued that this work must be performed by the school because, if left to other agencies, it would not be performed at all.

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On the other side, the conservatives held to the view that, while instruction in sex hygiene should be given to pupils of advanced standing, it was possible that more harm than good might result from the attempt to impart such knowledge to children in the lower grades. They pointed out that no text-books had been compiled or could be compiled on this subject that could safely be placed in the hands of younger children, and urged that better results might be obtained by extending the teaching of this subject to adults, who might in turn impart it to their children. This view of the matter was ably presented by the Rev. Richard J. Tierney, a Catholic clergyman and teacher. He insisted that while the intellectual side of the proposed instruction in sex hygiene was definite and detailed, the ethical side was left too vague and too purely naturalistic. Information alone could not keep a man upright, he held, but religious or ethical belief must play a large part in it. He urged that instruction alone must fail to accomplish the result aimed at, and that the personal purity campaign must be carried further and applied to outside social activities as well as to the training received in the school.

The net result of the discussion of this topic undoubtedly will be a great extension of properly safeguarded instruction in this important subject.

One feature of this Congress on School Hygiene which deserves mention even in a brief report of its activities was the great personal tribute to President Eliot which it called out. As President of the Congress, he was naturally one of its most conspicuous figures. It was not in this official capacity, however, but rather as the foremost figure in the educational and intellectual life of the Nation that the distinguished President Emeritus of Harvard occupied the most influential place in the deliberations of the Congress. In every discussion in which he participated the influence of his virile personality gave vigor and worth to the proceedings. Perhaps no better evidence could be given of the importance which the subject of school hygiene in its broadest interpretation has come to command than is afforded by the fact that the man whose life and achievements comprehend the greatest progress in the instruction of the youth of the country should take the leading part in a Congress devoted to health promotion through the schools.

In the countries in which the preceding Congresses have been held, each of these gatherings has been followed by a great expansion in the scope and efficiency of health instruction. Those who are devoting themselves, either as a vocation or as an avocation, to the bringing about of higher standards of health in the United States left Buffalo with renewed inspiration to make a like record of progress in this country.

EARL W. MAYO.

SUMMER VESPER SERMONS

CO-LABORERS WITH GOD

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

For we are laborers together with God: ye are God's husbandry, ye are God's building.—1 Cor. iii. 9.

WE are all working with and for God. Some of us mean to, and some do not; some of us have our eyes open, and some are blind; some swell the great procession and go singing our joyous songs because we are working for God, and some go with arms manacled and with reluctant tread; but we are all working for God and with God, whether we will or not.

The difference between religious and secular work is that the religious worker knows what he is doing. Religion is partnership with God. The most irreligious work in the world is the religious work that has not God in it; and there is no truer religious work than the work of the statesman, the merchant, the lawyer, if he is working for God and God is working with him. There is no such profanation as a pulpit that has not God in it; and there is no more sacred ground than the lawyer's office, if God is in it. Every bush is all aflame; and when our eyes are opened and we see life as it is, we take our shoes from off our feet and know that we are on holy ground. It is only because we

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were before dull of vision that we did not see.

In the sculptor's studio the sculptor is at work with the plastic clay modeling the form, and his pupils are watching how he does it and trying to imitate him. God is still making men of clay, but breathing life into the clay as no sculptor does. And to us he says, "You may help. Nay, I will stand back, and let you do the work, and I will show you how." The world is a kindergarten of very little children, and the great God is offering to them his great love and his great life.

"Why does he not do it at once?" Did you ever try the experiment of putting a big life into a little soul? You cannot do it except as you can make the soul grow big to hold the life. That is what God is doing through the ages—making the souls of men large enough to take his life, and giving the life that by giving he may make the souls large. And in all this work he takes his instruments from humanity. He takes Moses, the Hebrew, to lead the Hebrews out of their bondage; David, the sensual man, to teach the world what is the meaning of spirituality; Paul, the Pharisee, to preach the gospel of catholicity; Luther, the monk, to proclaim liberty through the nations of Europe; Beecher, brought up in New England Puritanism, to teach the world a love that has broken the icy bonds of Puritanism. He takes men to do work among men and for men.

This is the very heart and essence of his method. For when he would make full and glorious manifestation of himself, he does it by entering into human life with his own glory, so teaching us that God can and does dwell with and in man; and the man in whom God dwells is the supremest possible revelation of God. And then, when the Christ of God goes, this is the last word he leaves to his disciples: "As the Father hath sent me into the world, so send I you into the world. Lo, I am with you alway, even unto the end of the world. I have done works: but greater works than these shall you do, if you believe in me." "Greater works," because God is still co-laboring with us. Christ fed a few thousand, but Christian charity has fed by the million since. Christian charity to-day is healing more in a single city than Christ healed in all his lifetime. As the fruit of his preaching, five hundred converts gathered after Christ's death. As the immediate fruit of the preaching of Wesley and Whitefield, Methodism had shaken all England from center to circumference; had crossed the ocean, had wrought its work of conversion in America, and had crossed the Channel and wrought its work of conversion in Europe. Eighty thousand people are said to be the number of the converts that were made through the work of Wesley during his own lifetime. More have been converted to Christ, far more, by Charles G. Finney, Dwight L. Moody, Henry Ward Beecher, the elder Beecher, and a dozen names I could mention to-day, than were converted by Christ's preaching while he lived. It is as though Christ said, I will show you how to do it, then I will step into the background. I will not leave you, I will show you how to correct mistakes; when you go wrong, I will set you right again; but I will stand behind, and I will give you the honor and the glory and the blessedness of the work that I have just begun.

God is working out the world's redemption. He is lifting sin and sorrow off human hearts. He is teaching men what manhood really means. He is teaching them justice and truth and duty and love. And he says to us, You may share in this work if you will; you may come into my studio and paint pictures for me; you may come into my nation and build temples and palaces for me; you may come into my community and teach brotherhood for me; you may come into my Church and teach faith and hope and love for me.

Some of us cannot do what we call work. Some of us must be content to teach men how to suffer. Some of us must be content to teach men how to stand and serve by waiting. God has given to some of us an infant class of our own in our own home, and that demands all our care. I know not what your appointed work is; but this I know, that somewhere there is some work appointed for you. God's work is going on; it is to be accomplished, and by and by we shall come bringing our sheaves with rejoicing. When we so come, will you have a hand in the sheaf-bearing and a voice in the harvest song, or will you stand only as the spectator of the joy and the glory of others? We in this world look longingly forward for the glory of heaven; but I sometimes think when we get to heaven we shall look longingly back, and wish we might return for the cross-bearing and the service and the campaigning which this life alone offers.

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A NATIONAL LESSON IN MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

FIRST ARTICLE

THE NEW YORK CITY FUSION TICKET

BY A SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT OF THE OUTLOOK

"FUSION," according to Noah Webster, "is the union or blending together of things into oneness." The Fusion Movement in New York might be described as the union of all who believe in the principle of non-partisanship in municipal affairs, to the end that the people of the city may enjoy an economic and efficient administration in which expediency is replaced by principles. What gives the efforts of these citizens more than casual significance is the fact that their activities are part of a widespread movement in the United States to improve municipal government, which James Bryce and other students of government have called the weak spot in the American system. The forces of corruption against which the batteries of Fusion are aimed find expression in some degree in every American city of consequence. Tammany Hall is local in name alone. In New York the struggle for good government is on a larger scale than elsewhere; the play of the opposing forces is visible to the naked eye. Social and political phenomena that exist to some extent in all our cities are perhaps best epitomized in the metropolis.

The genesis of Fusion was the spontaneous germination of the conviction in the minds of a considerable number of citizens that the problems of city government in New York could be handled satisfactorily only by men of business judgment and constructive ability, unhampered by party ties. "Our city is a huge corporation," said these men; "why should it not conduct its affairs as efficiently as a private corporation? National parties divide on National issues, which do not affect city affairs."

Accordingly, a number of these "municipal patriots," including some who had been in the fight against Tammany four years ago, constituted themselves a committee of ways and means. On March 19 a mass-meeting was held in the Fifth Avenue Building, and foundations were laid for what bids fair to become a permanent municipal party. A committee of twenty representatives of the five boroughs was appointed, with Dr. Henry Moskowitz, head worker of the Madison House Association, as chairman. This body worked day and night for six weeks selecting, from more than seven hundred names of representative men from all parties, the famous Committee of One Hundred and Seven, or Citizens' Municipal Committee, as it calls itself by preference. The number 107 had no mystic significance, but was simply the fairest approximation that could be secured of just representation of all the factions concerned from the five boroughs, without regard to race or creed. Most of the races found in New York's welter of nationalities are represented on the Committee. This body and its executive committee took up the task of selecting candidates, and from the middle of May to the end of July sifted and analyzed public opinion, receiving suggestions from citizens and civic bodies galore.

Soon it was evident that as regards the nomination for the Mayoralty public opinion was all for three men—John Purroy Mitchel, Collector of the Port of New York; George McAneny, President of the Borough of Manhattan; and Charles S. Whitman, District Attorney of New York County. How Mr. Mitchel was selected to head the ticket early on the morning of the 1st of August, after the Citizens' Committee had been deadlocked all night, and how the two unsuccessful candidates magnanimously decided to bury their disappointment and accept the positions offered them, the Presidency of the Board of Aldermen for Mr. McAneny, and the District Attorneyship for Mr. Whitman, is a matter of history now.

The point to bear in mind is that, while the men who named these candidates had only self-constituted authority, their choice has been accepted by all as the choice of the elements in the city opposed to Tammany. The consideration of certain striking aspects of Fusion may throw light on this phenomenon.

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In the first place, Fusion is a popular revolt, not a political movement, and therein differs from past alliances against Tammany. For sixty years prior to 1895 Tammany had tasted defeat only once; but in that year inspiration came to the leaders of the other parties, and, with a foresight that was as admirable as it was delayed, they agreed to bury their differences in a united attempt to "twist the tiger's tail." In the first of the so-called Fusion campaigns the united forces elected, as Mayor, William L. Strong, and proof was given the world that the forces in the metropolis opposed to Tammany could rule as long as they were united. Apparently the party leaders missed the lesson that was so plain to outside observers, however, for in 1897 Tammany elected Robert A. Van Wyck Mayor, through the failure of the Republicans to line up with the other elements opposed to the Fourteenth Street organization. In 1901 complete fusion elected Seth Low, but in 1905 the Republicans again put Murphy in power by entering a third ticket. Four years ago the election of Mayor Gaynor by Tammany and independent voters was made possible by the obstinacy of Mr. Hearst, who insisted upon himself running for the place, although he supported the rest of the Fusion ticket, which was successful. Thus during the past eighteen years has the lesson been driven home that Tammany Hall, as the most complete embodiment of the unholy alliance in the city between dishonest politicians and the forces of privilege, can be beaten only by the united action of its enemies.

While past Fusion campaigns have been launched and guided by machine-trained political engineers, however, the 1913 attack was begun and is being sustained by men who get whatever recognition they enjoy through their prestige as individuals and the tacit backing of the mass of public-spirited citizens. It has been well said that the Strong campaign of 1896 was multi-partisan rather than non-partisan, and the same statement would apply to other anti-Tammany alliances prior to this one. In the words of Mr. Norman Hapgood, Chairman of the Citizens' Municipal Committee, "All other Fusion movements were attempts to get the anti-Tammany machines pulling together. This year the citizens tailed onto the traces of the band-wagon without waiting for the machines. The machines got in line because they had to."

Here, then, we have an attempt by the people to govern themselves directly. Readers of The Outlook may have wondered how it was that Mr. Hapgood and those with him could cram their candidates down the throats of Republican, Progressive, and Democratic party leaders, not to mention the Independent gentlemen who have formed a league professedly opposed to dictatorial political methods. The answer is that no forceful feeding was done by Mr. Hapgood and his associates; the process was rather one of eager deglutition by the politicians, who swallowed Fusion as a starving Eskimo absorbs a juicy piece of blubber.

In the gubernatorial election of 1908 the Republican vote in the four counties of Greater New York was 261,186; in 1910 it was 197,727; and last fall it dropped to 111,630—a decrease of more than fifty-seven per cent through three elections. The organizations of the Cleveland and the Empire State Democracy, the former the shell of a once powerful party and the latter an amalgamation of the "highbrow" elements in the party, formed not long ago to fight for direct primaries, were both, as usual, itching for a dig at Tammany. The Hearst forces, coalesced under the emblem of the Independence League, were in a similar mood. Furthermore (but speak it not above a whisper!), it may be suspected from the rapacious manner in which the party bosses have fought for the lesser places on the ticket, as well as from the disappointment that some of them showed when the chief nominations were made, that each boss hoped to get the butter of the Fusion churning. In short, not only did the anti-Tammany machines face the alternative of accepting Fusion or a loss of prestige, but the signs are that each of them planned to use Fusion as a stalking-horse for its own ambitions.

It is only fair to remember that past successes of the allies have taught that all the corruption and misgovernment in New York has by no means emanated from the Wigwam on Fourteenth Street; and the success with which that unique body, the Committee of 107, has thus far held at bay the hungry party wolves is a testimonial to the tact and acumen of the Committee, as well as to its sincerity of purpose.

Another respect in which this year's brand of Fusion differs from those of the past is that the defeat of Tammany is only an inci-

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dental part of the programme. "Tammany is combated," as Dr. Henry Moskowitz said in addressing the first meeting of the Citizens' Committee, "because Tammany has symbolized 'the shame of our cities.'" "What we hope to do," said Chairman Hapgood recently, "is to take the city out of politics entirely. When we've elected our men, the fight to get laws insuring real home rule, a short ballot, absence of party emblems, and a permanent business administration will continue." Hence the insistence on the principle of non-partisanship. The Fusionists want to put the affairs of this huge corporation, with an annual budget of more than two hundred million dollars, on a business basis and keep them there. That the Citizens' Municipal Committee is the nucleus of a permanent municipal party was evidenced by the recent action of six of its members in taking out papers of incorporation by which the Committee is empowered to set up a ticket of its own at any time, irrespective of the actions of the old parties.

Here, then, is the reason that the action of the members of the Fusion Vigilance Committee as leaders "by divine right" of the forces of good government has remained unchallenged. Tired by the failure of past unions of anti-Tammany machines to give the city a régime much cleaner than what it was wont to receive from Murphy and his predecessors, the mass of voters were only too glad to accept the leadership of men from their own ranks whose sincerity could not be questioned. In the face of this wave of popular feeling the machines didn't dare dispute the mandates of the Citizens' Municipal Committee, and, with varying degrees of grace, accepted the inevitable.

The platform of Fusion is admirable for its directness, brevity, and the quality of its material. Home rule is provided for by planks calling for the framing by the city of its own charter, the adoption of a thoroughgoing direct primary, the elimination of National party names and emblems from ballots used in city elections, the control of city revenue—including the subjects and rates of taxation, the control of public utilities, and the enlargement of the powers of the Board of Estimate, to make it in name, what it already is in fact, the responsible governing body of the city—with the abolition of the Board of Aldermen, or, at least, the removal of all power of the Aldermen in fiscal matters. Other important provisions in the platform relate to the reorganization of the police, the creation of new sources of city revenue through the taxation of franchises and other privileges, the power of excess condemnation, and some excellent measures of social reform, including the establishment of a Department of Markets with wholesale terminal food centers in each borough, the creation of a Municipal Department of Recreation, the reorganization of the Department of Charities and its correctional system, and the supplying of food at cost to school children by the Board of Education. The supporting framework of the platform, however, is composed of those planks that call for economy and efficiency in city administration, and, judging from early utterances of the nominees, insistence on these reforms is to be made the principal issue in the campaign by the allies, who in so doing will be able to refer to the notable progress in these respects made by the Fusion members of the present Board of Estimate. Some of the measures advocated to save the city money are the establishment of a central bureau to purchase all city supplies, the standardization of salaries for municipal employees, the issuance of bonds for permanent improvements only—and never for longer periods than the probable life of such improvements—the appointment to office for merit alone, and the abolition of all sinecures.

In selecting a leader for their ticket the members of the Fusion nominating committee were not hampered by lack of material—in fact, the worth of no one of the trio that from the first led the field in the race for the Mayoralty nomination was ever questioned. The fight narrowed into a question of availability. The friends of Mr. Whitman pointed to his record as a City Magistrate, Judge of General Sessions, and, more particularly, as District Attorney, in which capacity he had brought to justice the murderers of Herman Rosenthal, the gambler, and successfully conducted the prosecution of police grafters which was an aftermath of the murder case. Such a record, it was urged, would assure the District Attorney of the support of thousands of voters outside his party. Mr. McAneny's advocates based his case on his admirable record as President of Manhattan Borough, and declared that the many measures he had fostered, with resultant saving of the city's money, made him just the man to place at the head of a vast public corporation. In their turn the adherents of Mr.

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Mitchel called attention to his signal service as an exposer of corruption and departmental carelessness while Commissioner of Accounts, and, later, his farsightedness and independence of party ties shown while President of the Board of Aldermen and while Acting Mayor during Mr. Gaynor's incapacity in 1910. These traits, it was said, put him on a par with the others as far as fitness was concerned, and, when it came to the question of expediency, Mr. Mitchel's followers averred that he was most certainly the "logical candidate." As a Democrat in good standing who had been honored with appointment to the Collectorship of the Port of New York, Mr. Mitchel was easily more "available" in a Democratic city than Mr. Whitman, a lifelong Republican, no matter what the personal drawing powers of the latter might be. As opposed to Mr. McAneny, the Collector could command the support of the Hearst forces, which were openly against the candidacy of the Borough President; and it was also claimed that the labor element would be more generous with its votes to Mr. Mitchel than to Mr. McAneny. The force of these considerations may not have been much, but, like Mercutio's wound, it was enough. The Collector won by a hair after the name of McAneny had been withdrawn. The first of the final polls gave Mitchel 32 votes, Whitman 29, McAneny 28; the eighth and last count was Mitchel 45, Whitman 44. Thereupon the Committee unanimously nominated Mr. Whitman for his present position and Mr. McAneny for President of the Board of Aldermen. One of the most refreshing developments of recent New York City politics was the fine spirit in which both these gentlemen determined to stand by the ship of Fusion, thereby insuring the solidification of the anti-Tammany forces, rather than heed the advice of self-styled friends and self-seeking party leaders to "go it alone for the whole cake or nothing."

The Fusion Movement is a young man's movement, and the man who leads the forces of good government into battle is the junior of all his lieutenants. John Purroy Mitchel was born in Fordham, Greater New York, thirty-four years ago, the son of James Mitchel, at one time Fire Commissioner, and the grandson of John Mitchel (an Irish patriot and associate of Daniel O'Connell), who was banished from his native land because of his too rabid advocacy of Home Rule. The Fusion candidate for Mayor doubtless got his absolute fearlessness and his fighting strain from his fiery grandfather. These qualities have more than once stood him in good stead since he began his public career as Assistant Corporation Counsel; but they were particularly prominent during his investigations while Commissioner of Accounts, which resulted in the reorganization of several city departments. That is one salient feature of Mitchel's work: it is always constructive. The worst thing his enemies have said about him is that he is a Hearst man. But although his views and Mr. Hearst's have coincided on several questions, he has refused a nomination on the Hearst ticket unless his colleagues on the Fusion ticket are included. For his bitter opposition to the subway contracts he has been much censured; but even most of his enemies admit that in this matter he followed his lights and acted through disinterested motives. Perhaps his best asset as Mayor would be his tremendous assimilative and analytical powers. As a member of the Board of Estimate he has written more reports than any of his colleagues, and it has been said of him that he can grasp the details of any subject, no matter how technical, if put before him in simple language. This tireless, far-seeing, serious young man has the stuff in him of which the best public servants are made.

Charles S. Whitman and George McAneny, "the right and left bowers of Fusion" they have been called, whose presence on the ticket lends it almost as much strength as does Mr. Mitchel's, are both young men, and have both long been students of municipal affairs. Mr. Whitman, who was born in Norwich, Connecticut, forty-five years ago, is a graduate of Amherst College and of the Law School of New York University. Like the nominee for Mayor, he entered public office as an Assistant Corporation Counsel, being appointed in 1902 at the beginning of the Low administration. He became the personal legal adviser of Mayor Low, and in this capacity was afforded frequent opportunities to acquaint himself with the workings of municipal machinery. From that point until he reached his present position the rungs in the ladder of success were for him successively a City Magistracy, the Presidency of the Board of City Magistrates, and a seat on the bench of the Court of General Sessions. While President of the Board of Magistrates he created the Night Court and broke up the business of professional bonds-

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men. Mr. Whitman is a determined fighter, and, with Mr. Mitchell as Mayor, would make up a team that could bring order out of the chaos in the Police Department, if such a task is possible of human achievement.

The mildness and never-failing courtesy of George McAneny have led some men, to their sorrow, to conclude that he was "easy." Idealist and philosopher as he is, he is by no means a dreamer, and his ideals are those of a practical man who knows the world and human nature. During most of the forty-three years of his life Mr. McAneny has had his nose near the municipal grindstone, and his hobby is city government. As a New York newspaper man during some of the years when city politics were at their worst, and later as President of the City Club when they weren't a great deal better, he had acquired, when he took office as President of Manhattan in 1909, a vast knowledge of what not to do as well as the fund of theories that made him suspected by the "man on the street." A friend of the Borough President's has given me this impartial and illuminating estimate of the man: "McAneny is a mild idealist, but no theorist. His social philosophy is that of sunshine and light. He hates blue and purple, and likes pink, red, and yellow. Clean, intelligent, effective up to the limits of his physical strength, he makes a good municipal housekeeper and would make an ideal general equilibrator for any administration." In National politics Mr. McAneny is an independent Democrat.

For the other important city offices—namely, those that confer membership in the Board of Estimate, the body that virtually holds the city's purse-strings—the Fusion nominators have selected William A. Prendergast for Comptroller; and for the Presidencies of the Boroughs of Manhattan, Brooklyn, the Bronx, Queens, and Richmond they have chosen, respectively, Marcus M. Marks, Lewis H. Pounds, Douglas Mathewson, Robert W. Higbie, and George Cromwell.

Mr. Prendergast, who is the present Comptroller, is a Progressive whose aptitude for finance was first evidenced in public office when he was Register of Kings County. He has written much on commercial subjects, and his work, "Credit and Its Uses," is considered an authority. He nominated Timothy L. Woodruff for Lieutenant-Governor in 1896, seconded the nomination of Charles E. Hughes for Governor in 1906, and has himself run for Congress.

Of the others, Mr. Marks and Mr. Higbie, both Republicans, have had little political experience. Mr. Marks is a retired manufacturer with a penchant for arbitration—both international and industrial, but especially the latter. He has served as a mediator and abitrator in numerous labor disturbances, and was a member of the Industrial Peace Committee of Nine appointed by President Roosevelt, as well as of Governor Hughes's Immigration Commission; but whether his experience as a peacemaker will avail him anything as a member of the Board of Estimate remains to be seen. Mr. Higbie, a merchant who has served as President of the Queens County Chamber of Commerce, has never held public office, although he was a member of the executive committee of the Inter-State Commerce Commission Law Convention which was active in getting through the Hepburn Bill regulating railway rates. Mr. Mathewson is a Republican lawyer who was noted for his independence as a member of the State Assembly some years ago. He has also been Assistant Corporation Counsel, and, as First Deputy Comptroller since 1909, has made a record for efficiency and devotion to duty. Another lawyer on the ticket is Lewis H. Pounds, who showed his willingness to subordinate his own fortunes to the interest of the public when he declined the Republican nomination for Borough President of Brooklyn in 1909 to avoid cutting into the support of the Fusion candidate, Judge Steers. He was put in the place of the man for whom he had stepped aside when President Steers resigned a month ago. Mr. Cromwell is running for a position that has been his for some time, he having been President of Richmond since the Borough was created in 1898.

The item in the Fusion programme most indicative of the trend of city government in the United States to-day is the provision to clothe the Board of Estimate with powers to be shorn from the Board of Aldermen. This is the last step in a process that has been going on since the Board of Estimate was formed in 1871, and is analogous to the gradual centralization of power in other cities during recent years, culminating in government by commission. Although the average New Yorker is unaware of it, it is a fact that his city is to-day virtually commission governed. Almost the entire power of the city in fiscal matters lies with this Board, which has been called "New York's unique contribution to municipal government." This body

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is composed of the Mayor, Comptroller, and President of the Board of Aldermen, with three votes each; the Presidents of the Boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn, each with two votes; and the Presidents of the Bronx, Queens, and Richmond, with one vote apiece. At present the only power of the Aldermen over the city's money is to reduce items in the budget proposed by the Board of Estimate; they may neither increase items nor insert new ones. Any such reductions, too, are subject to the Mayor's veto, and in that event the Aldermen can gain their point only by a three-quarters vote. If this remnant of former puissance is taken from the Aldermen and given to the Board of Estimate, the government of New York City will be carried on by a commission of eight men, of whom three can control a majority of votes.

The prospect of seeing tried out in a city of 5,000,000 inhabitants an experiment hitherto confined to much smaller communities, and the spectacle of a body of citizens striving to throw off permanently the shackles of partisanship, are the two great features that lend National interest to the bloodless revolution called "Fusion."

GREGORY MASON.

[This article will be followed next week by an account of Tammany Hall and its corrupting influence on New York City government. This account has been written, at the request of The Outlook, by Everett P. Wheeler, Esq., a leading member of the New York Bar, and a loyal, active, and influential Democrat in National politics.—THE EDITORS.]

THE CONTROL OF DISEASE

BY EDWARD H. LEWINSKI-CORWIN, PH.D., IN COLLABORATION WITH EARL W. MAYO

A preceding article, "The Medical Profession and the Conservation of Public Health," will be found in The Outlook of August 30. In connection with this article the reader will be interested in the special correspondence from the Congress of School Hygiene to be found on another page of this issue.—THE EDITORS.

THERE are certain diseases which it would easily be possible for medical skill, clothed with sufficient authority, to banish utterly from any community within a brief time. If we were to set up in each city or State a competent medical dictator, with authority to enforce regulations and restrictions that past discoveries have suggested, he could quickly put an end to typhoid fever and malaria, and reduce diphtheria and scarlet fever to a point where they would cause as little concern as does smallpox in most of our cities at the present time.

Within the past few years we have seen something of this very sort accomplished at Panama, which has been transformed, under the sanitary rule of Colonel Gorgas, from a spot in which it was deemed impossible for white men to work or to live for any length of time, to a district which compares favorably in its health record with any other portion of the United States.

While it is true that under what may be designated as ideal conditions of medical control it would be possible to reduce and in some directions practically to eliminate mortality and morbidity from the common forms of contagious and communicable disease, it is equally true that these diseases continue to exact their toll of sickness and death in all parts of the country at a rate that is still relatively large. If we turn to the statistics of three familiar contagious diseases, diphtheria, scarlet fever, and measles, we find that in 1910 there were 71,238 cases of these diseases in New York and 25,038 in Chicago. There are many smaller cities that would show far higher rates proportionately to their populations.

NOT WHOLLY A MEDICAL PROBLEM

This is but another way of saying that the control and eradication of disease is not wholly a medical problem. It is almost equally a social problem. So long as the

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general public prefers to submit to the suffering and loss imposed by controllable diseases, medical skill cannot lift the burden. But the medical profession can devise means of extending the degree of control exercised over contagious and communicable disease. It can impress upon the public mind the advantage and the necessity of isolating and limiting such diseases so far as is possible under existing conditions. And this is a public service which is being performed with increasing thoroughness and effect by medical men through their various organizations.

The problem of dealing with contagious diseases is not a simple one. This is true especially in large and crowded cities. The majority of cases of measles, diphtheria, and scarlet fever, for example, occur among children. Even in schools where medical inspection is provided these diseases often go unrecognized in the early stages and until the opportunity to prevent the spread of contagion has passed. Ignorance and indifference frequently vitiate attempts at effective home quarantine. There are still parents who cling to the senseless belief that measles and scarlet fever are inevitable ills and that the sooner their children have had them and are through with them the better.

CYCLES OF CONTAGION

Contagious diseases, at least the commoner ones which are here dealt with, come and go in waves or cycles, recurring more or less regularly. Measles and scarlet fever appear usually at the same time of year and run in parallel waves. A high wave of measles is accompanied by a high wave of scarlet fever. The receding tides are likewise simultaneous and parallel, although the amplitude of the measles wave is usually much larger than that of scarlet fever. Diphtheria fluctuates less from year to year than the other two. It has a longer season, beginning usually in August or September and slackening only in May or June. It never becomes so suddenly acute as measles and scarlet fever, but its greatest prevalence falls during the months of their heavy incidence.

This synchronous occurrence of the high and low points in the prevalence of the commoner contagious diseases adds to the difficulty of effective control. On account of the difficulties attending the enforcement of rigid home quarantine, it is recognized that hospital treatment is the best method of checking the spread of infection. The maintenance of hospital facilities for diseases that may supply hundreds of cases in March and only tens in July presents some special problems. If hospital equipment is provided to care for the number of cases presented when an epidemic is at its height, most of its beds will stand empty during a good part of the year. This in itself is no great calamity, but, whether patients are many or few, the cost of maintenance, the overhead charges, the expense of the medical and nursing staff, must go on. The demands upon the exchequer of the average city are such that public officials are not likely to agree to the expenditure of funds for hospitals unless they are reasonably well filled at most times. There are many unusual items of expense connected with the maintenance of hospitals for contagious diseases, including the necessity of separate pavilions and separate working staffs for each disease treated.

INADEQUATE HOSPITAL FACILITIES

The practical working out of these conditions in most cities is that the provision of hospitals for the treatment of contagious diseases is altogether inadequate. When an epidemic develops, the hospitals are overcrowded, sometimes to the bursting point. Such congestion operates to defeat their usefulness. Overcrowding and lack of air space lead to cross-infection. Insufficient medical and nursing attendance work havoc among the patients. The mortality rates become much higher than the corresponding rates among patients treated in their homes. The lack of ample and modern provision for contagious disease hospitals in many American cities has led to the strong prejudice that exists against these "pest-houses," as they are popularly and sometimes accurately named.

In a previous article reference has been made to the work done by the New York Academy of Medicine in helping to solve some of the public health problems of the city. One of the first subjects to which the Public Health, Hospital, and Budget Committee of the Academy turned its attention upon its organization early in 1911 was a study of the contagious disease situation in New York. It was found that there were too few hospitals for the needs of the city, and that their capacity was sorely overtaxed during epidemics. The long ambulance rides required in conveying patients to the hospitals, amounting in some instances to eighteen miles, were exhausting and in some cases fatal. As a

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result of its investigations, the Committee made a large number of recommendations covering the erection of new hospitals, besides details of construction and administration, quarantine and sanitary regulations, nursing, medical care, and after care.

One of the peculiar difficulties attending the handling of contagious diseases was illustrated when the city authorities, following out the suggestions of the Committee, provided for the erection of new contagious disease hospitals in two boroughs of the city where such facilities were greatly needed. Owners of property adjoining the sites selected immediately protested on the ground that property values would be depreciated because of the popular prejudice against living in the neighborhood of such institutions. The Committee thereupon issued an address pointing out that a hospital for diphtheria, measles, and scarlet fever when properly administered is not a danger to a neighborhood. Undoubtedly, however, a much more sustained effort at popular education in this matter is necessary to eradicate the mediæval notion that the contagion of these diseases is somehow carried about in the air and that the vicinity of a hospital devoted to them necessarily must be a dangerous locality.

PROBLEM OF THE BLACK PLAGUE

While the danger from failure to control such diseases as have been mentioned is generally appreciated, and failure to adopt adequate measures of protection is due usually to practical financial difficulties, there are other more dangerous and insidious diseases against which society has remained virtually unprotected because of ignorance regarding them and because of false notions of modesty which have stood in the way of attempts to dispel this ignorance. Unquestionably it is primarily because of the efforts of physicians to find some means of checking the frightful ravages of this class of diseases that the public is gradually awakening to the importance of this subject and is being brought to the determination to put an end to damaged goods, in the eugenic sense of the term.

There is plenty of evidence to prove that it is high time to grapple with this problem and that its solution will require public support and co-operation in enforcing such measures as may be suggested by the experience of the medical profession. The most serious fact about these diseases, which poison the blood, destroy mental faculties, and bring a vast train of physical and social ills in their wake, is that their worst effects fall upon the innocent. The hospitals for children are full of venereal affections; half of the existing blindness is due to them; their victims fill not only hospitals and dispensaries, but also lunatic asylums and correctional and charitable institutions.

Over thirteen per cent of all cases admitted to the New York State insane asylums in 1911 were cases of general paresis, an incurable disease of the brain due to syphilis. The care of these patients alone costs the State a million dollars a year. In the city of Philadelphia the cases of paresis, tabes, and cerebro-spinal syphilis admitted to the neurological wards form fifteen per cent of the admissions. From twenty to thirty per cent of the patients in our general hospitals suffer from one form or another of these diseases.

In January, 1913, a circular letter was sent by the Department of Health of New York to every physician in the city, asking him to give the number of cases of venereal disease that he had treated during 1912. The 1,500 physicians who replied, out of a total of 8,000, reported a total number of cases amounting to 42,659. This of course is only a fraction of the number of cases treated in private practice. To form an estimate of the extent of this form of disease one would have to add the large numbers treated in hospitals and dispensaries, and there would still be left a very large number of cases that receive no treatment at all or that receive it at the hands of druggists or of quacks.

PUBLIC CO-OPERATION NECESSARY

The causes of these diseases are well known, as are also the methods of early diagnosis and the remedies that can be applied effectively in their earlier stages. Upon the medical side society is well equipped to resist the spread of this frightful scourge. But it is true of these diseases to a greater extent than of almost any others that medical skill alone is unable to deal effectively with the situation. The physician cannot compel treatment, nor can he prevent the spread of the contagion. Only education and rigid social discipline, combined with adequate therapeutic and prophylactic measures, can check the spread of these ravaging diseases. The public and the medical profession must work together in order to check and, finally, to conquer them.

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In an effort to devise more effective methods of dealing with diseases of this class the Public Health, Hospital, and Budget Committee of the New York Academy of Medicine has turned its attention to an important agency which is valuable also in dealing with many other forms of disease, but which is usually hampered by lack of resources and facilities. This is the dispensary or out-patient clinic. With an equal expenditure of time and effort the well-equipped dispensary can deal with a far greater number of those cases which it is fitted to treat than can a hospital, and it reaches many cases that never would come under hospital care. According to official statistics more than 3,500,000 treatments were given in the dispensaries of the city of New York in 1911. This, of course, is the count of treatments, not of patients. Many patients come many times. Even with this qualification, however, the figures are instructive as showing the vast tide of illness and misery that flows unceasingly upon the one hundred odd dispensaries of the city, the amount of gratuitous service that the attending physicians render, and the important place that the dispensary occupies in the general scheme of public health work.

IMPORTANCE OF THE DISPENSARY

In view of the vast field that it is called upon to cover and the importance of its work, it is a curious fact that the dispensary is looked upon almost invariably by boards of managers as the Cinderella of the hospital household. It is scarcely ever cared for properly, is seldom well equipped, and is almost always expected to be self-supporting. Apparently not much faith is placed in the efficacy of the medical treatment provided by the dispensary, and slight recognition is given to its great possibilities in preventive medicine and in the public health movement. It is relatively easy to raise money for a hospital, but it is difficult to raise it for a dispensary, despite the greater social importance of the out-patient department. The hospital deals with cases of disease when they are in full swing; the dispensary deals with them in incipient stages, when they lend themselves much more readily to successful treatment and cure. Then, also, the dispensary has a great function to perform in advising and guiding patients with chronic diseases who either cannot be admitted to hospitals, or, if admitted, are likely to become pauperized, hospitalized, and helpless. Dispensary work becomes still more efficient and socialized where it reaches out to the homes of patients through a social service department, which brings patients back for treatment and thereby prevents the waste of the physicians' efforts, which supplies facts helpful to establishing correct diagnoses, and does educational work looking to the conservation of health and the prevention of disease among the dispensary's constituency. Wherever dispensary work is treated conscientiously along such lines as these its benefits soon become manifest. From this brief outline of the field of the dispensary it may readily be seen that it is especially adapted to dealing with those diseases which menace society particularly because, either from ignorance or fear of exposure on the part of their victims, they do not receive private medical treatment or come under hospital care until they have reached advanced stages, having been transmitted possibly to many other persons in the interim. In any comprehensive plan for dealing with diseases of this class the dispensary should fill a very important rôle.

In the effort to increase the efficiency of this branch of the public health service the Public Health, Hospital, and Budget Committee of the Academy was instrumental in bringing about the formation of the Associated Out-Patient Clinics of New York, with the fourfold aim of co-ordinating the work of the existing dispensaries and out-patient clinics, of eliminating "rounders" and other undeserving applicants, of promoting proper standards of treatment, and of securing economy and efficiency in management. Most of the important general dispensaries of Manhattan, all of those connected with teaching institutions, the municipal dispensaries, and many special dispensaries, have joined the Association. In the short period of its existence many important measures have been adopted and changes have been inaugurated which will go a long way toward the betterment of existing conditions. The Association should prove valuable in helping to impress upon medical authorities, city officials, and the general public the importance of this branch of public health endeavor.

A PUBLIC HEALTH CLEARING-HOUSE

Another field in which the Academy's Committee has been active has been in bringing about a concentration of effort among agencies devoted to the promotion of public

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health. The Committee found that there were in New York City over one hundred civic, charitable, scientific, social, and religious agencies interested in one way or another in the matter of public health. In order to save effort and to enhance efficiency a plan was put forward to establish a clearing-house of public health activities to include these organizations.

This proposal led to the formation in June, 1913, of a Central Council of Public Health of the city of New York. The purpose of this organization is to deal with those problems requiring civic and public effort for their proper solution.

One of the many subjects which may come within the scope of the Council is the provision of adequate facilities for the care of mental defectives. It has been officially estimated that the number of persons in the State of New York having the taint of mental defect is 200,000, and that there are about 20,000 of the lower grades of mentality, of whom a little over 6,000 are in public and private institutions. With the exception of this small proportion, these mentally deficient individuals are under no restraint and are free to breed a further race of idiots, imbeciles, criminals, prostitutes, and epileptics. In New York City these unfortunates, or such of them as are capable of being taught, receive a certain degree of care and attention between the ages of six or seven and fourteen in the ungraded classes of the public schools established for abnormally backward children. In 1911 the city maintained one hundred and twenty-six such classes, with an enrollment of something over one thousand.

Outside of this provision of school care, which of course is entirely inadequate to deal with the problem of the mentally defective, only the scantiest provision has been made thus far for dealing with this problem. In 1912 the New York State institutions for the feeble-minded and the epileptic, of whom 98 per cent are estimated to be mentally defective, had a total capacity of 4,155 beds, and their census at the time showed that there were 4,208 inmates. In addition the city of New York maintains at Randall's Island provision for a few hundred of this class of unfortunates. Not only is there a startling lack of physical provision for the care of mental defectives, as shown by the above figures, but there is a lack of adequate laws for dealing with this problem and of a well-defined social policy in relation to it.

CONTROL FOR MENTAL DEFECTIVES

To supply this threefold need the Public Health, Hospital, and Budget Committee of the New York Academy of Medicine has outlined a plan for dealing with this matter. This plan provides for placing the entire charge of the mental defectives throughout the State in the hands of a Board of Control. Under its supervision the care of feeble-minded children might be left with the parents during their earlier years. During school age means should be provided for teaching as many as possible of them to be self-supporting. Those who attained this position might be allowed later to live outside of institutions, but at all times they should remain under the supervision of the Board of Control in order to make possible their social control and the prevention of propagation. A bureau for the collection of permanent records of all mental defectives in the State, from birth to death, is proposed as one feature of the plan which looks to the careful control of the great army of mental defectives and the gradual reduction of the burden of dependency arising from this cause.

HEALTH SERVICE AT PORTS

One subject which has an important bearing upon the prevention of the spread of disease in these days when commerce between nations has reached such vast proportions is the proper provision of health inspection and quarantine for communicable diseases at the various ports of the country. While the methods of preventing disease from entering the country through its ports are sufficiently well developed as far as technical knowledge is concerned, the possibility of a failure in efficiency through the existence of divided authority is great enough to make the subject one of public concern. This aspect of the case recently has received the attention of the Public Health, Hospital, and Budget Committee of the Academy of Medicine, which has made the recommendation that the health supervision of the port of New York should be transferred to the United States Public Health Service. Because of political considerations action in this direction, however, seems likely to wait until a strong and forceful expression of public opinion demands it.

THE PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE

Since 1893 all maritime and inter-State quarantine powers of the United States have vested in what is now known as the Public

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Health Service, which is a branch of the Treasury Department and is directed by a Supervising Surgeon-General. The Public Health Service is empowered to promulgate uniform quarantine regulations for all ports of the United States, and these regulations must be enforced by State and municipal authorities if they retain the administration of port affairs. At the present time the Public Health Service operates forty-eight stations on the Atlantic, Gulf, and Pacific coasts, besides the quarantine systems of Hawaii, Porto Rico, the Philippines, and Alaska. The growth of its control over the various ports was gradual. As cities and States found that their individual efforts to keep out or to stamp out disease were ineffective or too costly, they became ready to transfer the regulation of this matter to the Federal Government of their own accord. Only three ports are not yet under direct Federal control—those of Boston, Baltimore, and New York.

Of all the ports of the country New York is the one which would seem most certainly to belong under Federal authority. By far the greater part of the ocean-borne trade and travel of the country passes through this gateway. The magnitude of its commerce and its importance as an immigration center make its port business pre-eminently National in character. Yet the financial burden of maintaining at this port the health safeguards which help to protect the whole country rests upon the State of New York alone. The budgetary requests for improvements and administration of the service for 1913 amounted to $2,314,780.

REASONS FOR NATIONAL CONTROL

While the cost of maintaining the New York quarantine service should be an inducement to the State to surrender it to Federal authority, there were numerous other reasons that impelled the Academy of Medicine's Committee to recommend the transfer. Aside from the fact that the service is one that is essentially National, or perhaps it might better be described as international, in its relations and in its bearing upon the public health, there is likely under present conditions to arise a conflict of authority that might seriously endanger the public health under critical conditions. Only last year, at the time of plague prevalence in Cuba, friction between the two authorities developed when a liner from Havana, to which a clean bill of health was refused by the Federal officers at the port of departure, was admitted to pratique by the State officers of New York on the ground that the violation of the rules on the part of the ship's captain was a matter to be attended to by the Federal Government! Moreover, quarantine is the only service at the port that is not controlled by the National Government. In addition to the customs, immigration, navy and army administration, Federal authority maintains the revenue cutter service and has control over navigable channels, dredging, and lighthouses. It seems only consistent to extend its power to quarantine and to have all port services under the one authority.

There is another reason for the transfer, pointed out by the Committee. As long as quarantine remains under State control and its officers are a part of the spoils of party success, there is constant danger that politics may interfere with the efficiency of its work. The Public Health Service of the United States is outside the domain of partisan politics. Modern quarantine work is essentially scientific, and scientific work cannot be pursued successfully except under the condition of reasonable permanency in office. The positions of chief quarantine officers should not be subject to party vicissitudes and should not be used as a reward for party services. Under Federal control there is continuity of service, uniformity of policy, constant supervision of the acts of all quarantine officers, and abundant opportunities for scientific and administrative training in various ports of the world, such as is not available to the officers of any State.

CO-OPERATION OF LAY PUBLIC AND MEDICAL PROFESSION

While the above sketch of a few of the activities in which the medical profession, through one of its most prominent and influential organizations, is working to promote the cause of public health is necessarily far from comprehensive, and perhaps may be described as fragmentary, it serves to indicate that there is an important field of social endeavor which is not as yet occupied, or at least is only imperfectly occupied. Since the conservation of public health is not wholly a medical question, but is in many cases even more largely a social question, there is abundant need and opportunity here for effective co-operation between the lay public and the medical profession. Do we not need an active National society which shall include

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leaders of public thought as well as leaders of achievement in the study and prevention of disease and in the application of medical knowledge to the promotion of public health? Such an organization could do an invaluable work in removing obstacles that exist in the pathway of medical progress and public health advancement. It could help to educate the lay public to the possibility and the advantage of protecting itself by the adoption of reasonable safeguards against the spread of controllable diseases. In many ways it could give a powerful impetus to the great cause of health conservation, which is literally the most vital of all causes claiming our interest and active participation.

IS THE COLLEGE MAKING GOOD?

ANOTHER POINT OF VIEW

BY DOUGLAS W. JOHNSON

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*In The Outlook last week were printed half a dozen letters replying to Mr. Bok's article in The Outlook for August 16. From a large number of other letters and articles received we select Professor Johnson's for publication in full. Also see an editorial elsewhere.—*THE EDITORS.

IN a recent issue of The Outlook Mr. Edward Bok asks the question, "Is the College Making Good?" and presents the results of an investigation which leads him to incline toward a negative answer. Mr. Bok's article is interesting, and doubtless will perform a useful service in impelling many teachers to renewed energy in combating the evils he describes. No one appreciates the existence of those evils more fully than does the college teacher, who gains his knowledge of them, not through a single letter written by a given student, but through that student's daily or weekly reports and essays, quiz papers, final examination books, and other compositions which the conscientious teacher must read, correct, and grade.

As a college teacher of physical geography and physiographic geology, I have frequent occasion to mourn the shortcomings of my students in respect to spelling, grammar, and legibility of writing. I have marked examination answers zero because it was simply impossible to decipher them, and have assigned a similar grade to other answers which were unintelligible because of ungrammatical construction. One of my students, a native American, wrote page after page in his examination book without making use of a capital or a punctuation mark, spelled Chicago "chegargo," and other names with equally bewildering originality. His knowledge of elementary physical geography would have entitled him to a low passing grade, but I gave him an "F" (failure), on the ground of "general illiteracy," a decision which he himself thought eminently just. But while painfully conscious of the evils in question, I have not blamed the college unduly. Perhaps it is because I am a college teacher that I have laid more blame on the elementary and secondary schools, while holding the college entrance authorities responsible for admitting to college standing boys and girls who could neither spell correctly nor write grammatically.

Not in my most gloomy moments, however, have I ever felt that the elementary and secondary schools were not "making good." I have felt that they were not making the best of their opportunities, and have wished that less time were devoted to fads and more to fundamentals. But, in spite of what seem to me serious defects in the present curricula of these schools, I am convinced that he must have but a partial view of a complex subject who would bring a wholesale indictment against elementary and secondary education. In like manner it seems to me that while college graduates as a whole undoubtedly do not spell and write as they should, Mr. Bok's indictment of the colleges is far from convincing.

In the first place, one may question whether the answers to a circular letter form a proper basis for judging the ability of the average student to write legibly and gram-

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matically. When I reach my desk in the morning, and find some circular which asks me to stop my other work and answer certain questions in which I am not at that moment vitally interested, I may jot down some rather hurried replies, which I would be glad to revise if I learned later that the questioner was really using them for a purpose materially different from the one he professed to have in view. Under the impression that he wants my opinions on the questions raised, I may give them hastily and in rather careless form. If I knew that he really wanted to know what my every-day writing looked like, I would try to write as I do in ordinary correspondence on subjects in which I am interested at the time. It is true that I should not write carelessly in replying to a circular letter. But if I do it is hardly convincing evidence that my college course was a failure. The fact that 1,426 men did not take the time for any reply suggests that some of those who did reply may have done so hastily. Of course many of the mistakes cannot be explained as the result of carelessness; but many others certainly bear the earmarks of haste rather than of ignorance. I sometimes write illegibly, and not infrequently transpose the letters of common words when writing hurriedly. On reading my own manuscript later, I have been surprised at the blunders made, as were doubtless many of the students upon seeing their letters in print. But in neither case do I believe that our college courses were necessarily failures.

A careful investigator will want to be assured that the replies which reached Mr. Bok were fairly representative of college seniors as a whole. Mr. Bok himself, with his characteristic view-point, concludes that those who failed to reply include men who disgrace our colleges more effectually than do those who answer his letter of inquiry. May it not be that the reverse is true? Our best college students are not only busy with routine work, but are active in many other phases of college life, such as literary societies, college papers, oratorical contests, debates, and so on. Such men are apt to push a circular letter to one side until they have "a spare moment"—a moment which does not come. I do not believe that I have been a striking disgrace to my college, but I must confess that had Mr. Bok's circular letter reached me during my senior year it would probably have found its way into the waste-basket, two-cent stamp and all.

This brings us to a question of ethics, which Mr. Bok discusses at some length. One thousand four hundred and twenty-six men failed to answer his circular letter, although they received self-addressed, stamped envelopes. With delightful *naïveté* Mr. Bok proceeds to condemn these men for having "no conception of the fundamental business rule of courtesy that a business letter calls for an answer, and that a stamped, addressed envelope entails, in a sense, a moral obligation upon the receiver"—a moral obligation in this case to write a reply in order that the questioner may publish it and hold its shortcomings up to public ridicule! But, assuming that no unexpected use was to be made of the letters, it would still be difficult to take seriously the contention that the recipient of a stamped, addressed envelope is necessarily under a moral obligation to reply, were Mr. Bok not so evidently in earnest. He does not explain just how a man can, without his knowledge or consent, become morally obliged to expend part of his valuable time on everybody who chooses to mail him a list of questions and a two-cent stamp. Were Mr. Bok's position tenable, it would be a piece of impertinence to send a busy man a stamped envelope, for one would thereby force him into the disagreeable necessity of replying whether he wanted to or not, and whether or not he could afford the time. But a stamped envelope is not a device for putting the other fellow "in a hole" and making him answer. It is rather a courtesy which the sender owes the recipient of the letter, in order that the labor of replying may be made as light as possible. Whether the recipient is under moral obligation to reply depends wholly upon the nature of the letter, not upon the presence of a stamped envelope. If the letter asks if I will act on a committee to consider the proper salaries for college professors, I am under obligation to reply, even if the sender neglected to inclose a stamp. But if I am asked to state how much of my salary I spend for my wife's clothes, I am under no obligation to reply, even though a stamped, addressed envelope accompanies the query.

Business and professional men are constantly receiving circular letters, advertisements, etc., containing stamped, addressed envelopes or cards for reply. I get them from insurance companies, from publishers of various styles of "Who's Who," from mining companies which want to sell stock, and

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from other concerns which believe it good business policy to inclose stamp for reply. To answer all that come in a year would require the expenditure of many dollars' worth of my time, or compel me to pay a stenographer for her time. It is indeed a curious method of reasoning which can evolve the conclusion that I am under moral obligation to spend my time or money in replying to these communications simply because the senders inclose stamps. I am sorry to have a man lose his one or two cents. I would return his stamp unused if I could do so without expense to myself; but as this is impossible, I throw letter and inclosure into the waste-basket with a clear conscience. Many letters containing return stamps deserve and receive replies; but the recipient must use his own judgment in deciding which ones he is under obligation to answer. It may be that the 1,426 students used poor judgment in not replying to Mr. Bok's letter. If so, it was because the character of his letter was such as to deserve an answer and not simply because it contained a stamped envelope for the desired reply. I am inclined to believe, however, that a large number of these men were justified in their decision not to answer the letter, because it would interfere with other more pressing duties, because they could not give an adequate answer without thinking the question over more carefully than they were then prepared to do, because they feared to have their letters quoted, or for other good and sufficient reasons.

In order to ascertain the practice of business men themselves in this matter of the stamped return envelope, I have questioned officials of several large New York concerns, with the following results: A high official in one of the departments of the city administration says he never considers that a stamped envelope entails a moral obligation to reply, and that many letters inclosing such envelopes receive no answer from his office. A member of one of the largest banking houses in New York tells me that it is not his custom to reply to all letters containing stamped envelopes, circular letters in particular being destroyed in considerable numbers every year, together with accompanying stamped envelopes or cards. One of the editorial staff of a big publishing house, after stating that he left many letters accompanied by stamped envelopes unanswered, added, "You cannot place a man under an obligation to answer such a letter, without his consent. If I find fifteen letters in my morning mail, containing return stamped envelopes, it certainly does not mean that I am under obligation to make fifteen replies." A representative of a large and well-known wholesale and retail store said that it cost his firm from fifteen cents to twenty-five cents to reply to a letter, and that it depended upon the character of the letter whether or not a reply was obligatory. In some cases letter and inclosures were returned in the stamped envelope, without comment, to show that the stamp was not used for other purposes; but large numbers of stamped envelopes and cards were destroyed every year. The secretary of a large university states that he seldom destroys a stamped envelope or card, but returns the empty envelope or blank card to the sender when he does not consider a reply necessary. It is rather curious to note that the college official was the only one of these business men who uniformly sent the stamped envelopes back, whether or not he replied to the communications which they accompanied.

It is certainly true that many of our students are remiss about answering letters which from their very nature demand a reply. Assuredly, it is a serious breach of etiquette when half the students who receive an invitation to a president's reception fail to reply, although the invitations were marked "R.S.V.P." So, too, there are business letters which demand a prompt response. By all means, let us teach our students, in the proper place, the fundamental rules of business courtesy; but neither in the schools nor in the colleges, let us hope, will they ever be taught that they place busy men under moral obligation to reply to a letter by inclosing a stamped return envelope.

There are several other points in Mr. Bok's investigation which the thorough student of the problem must carefully consider. Are poor penmanship, occasional misspelled words, and ungrammatical construction, individually or collectively, sufficient proof that the guilty party has not profited greatly from his or her college training? In physiography no student can fully comprehend the effects of the forces of erosion upon a mountain unless he first knows what was the original form of the mountain. It seems to me that Mr. Bok is trying to determine the effects of educational forces upon certain persons without paying due attention to the previous condition of those persons. I should

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like to know the places of residence, former training, home conditions, and certain other things about the students who made many of the blunders cited by him, before I should feel competent to form an opinion as to the amount of good they derived from a college education. There are some students who improve to a wonderful degree during their years in college, but who are so constituted mentally that no amount of training would ever enable them to write very creditable English.

Again, are penmanship, spelling, and grammar in any case infallible criteria of a man's ability? Truly, they are the most common tests which we apply; but the application must be made with discretion. More than one great author has written illegibly, indeed wretchedly, compared with the specimen of handwriting reproduced in Mr. Bok's article. I happen to have in my possession the manuscript of a public lecture delivered from more than one platform by the editor of a State paper once well known for the excellence of its editorial columns; but I have never been able to decipher more than a small percentage of the manuscript, so badly is it written. Publishers tell interesting stories of the many words misspelled in the manuscripts of widely known authors; and most of us can cite instances in which the English language has been grossly abused by men who certainly knew better than they wrote. One might paraphrase Mr. Bok and say:

Just try to get the thought in this sentence:

While thus inveighing against force, Luther pointed to his own example: he had done nothing but to speak, preach, and write, yet that, "even while I slumbered or drank Wittenberg beer with my Philip (Melanchthon) or with Armsdorf, has done more to weaken the Papacy than was ever accomplished by prince or emperor"!

Or this:

It proved in the end a phantom that Frederick William was chasing; the last of the Pfalz-Neuburgers outlived himself, etc.

Or how is this for a complete sentence:

In itself no mean advantage.

If an educated man can perpetrate the following sentence, of what use is education?

Before leaving France he had promised the lady he loved best—not his wife; she lay at the moment at the point of death—never to turn his back to the enemy; through all his fighting he wore her token upon his sleeve.

All of the above quotations are taken from the best short history of Germany published in English. Shall we agree that the author of those two intensely interesting volumes is a disgrace to his early education because he made such slips in grammar?

What shall we say of the author of this sentence?

Taking, then, his girdle and his cloak, Arbaces left his house, supporting his steps, which were still somewhat feeble (though hope and vengeance had conspired greatly with his own medical science, which was profound, to restore his natural strength), by his long staff: Arbaces took his way to the villa of Diomed.

Can Mr. Bok match that from his collection of choice bits of senior English? Still, one hesitates to consider Lord Lytton a disgrace to his college.

Shall we not rather convict our authors of carelessness instead of ignorance? And if learned men, writing expressly for publication, make careless mistakes, may not college seniors replying to a circular letter make similar mistakes without proving that their college training has been a waste of time and money? A college education is a complex thing; far too complex and far-reaching to admit of adequate evaluation on the basis of poorly written replies to a circular letter. Such replies are indeed but straws, and perhaps they do not even show the direction in which the wind blows. Perhaps they are moved by little backward eddies which are unrelated to the general onward movement of the great body of the atmosphere.

But whether due to carelessness or to fundamental ignorance, and doubtless both are involved, the evils exaggerated by Mr. Bok exist and should be remedied. It may be doubted, however, whether it is the function of the college to teach boys and girls how to spell correctly and write legibly and grammatically. It is possible for a student to pass through elementary schools, high school, academy, college, and graduate professional school, and still write illegibly and make mistakes in grammar and spelling. Which one of the educational agencies shall we blame for this student's deficiencies? Why single out the college? Why not lay the blame on the School of Medicine or the School of Mines? Or shall we place it on the elementary and high schools, where spelling, writing, and grammar are actually taught, and where the blame would seem more logically to lie? I have no sufficient body of facts to prove the case, but I nevertheless have the fear, shared by many others, that the high school graduate of to-day does not spell as well nor write as legibly and grammatically as did his prede-

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cessor of a few decades ago. And I believe this is due in large part to the introduction into the schools of subjects which may be more interesting and more like play than the older studies, but which unduly shorten the time available for the old-fashioned but fundamentally important subjects.

I would not have the college shirk its responsibility, however. It can materially improve the situation by refusing to admit any young man or young woman who cannot spell correctly and write legibly and grammatically. It is not the function of the college to teach these elementary subjects, and it ought not to burden itself with students who are not already at least reasonably proficient in them. Theoretically, some colleges require such proficiency of the candidate for admission; but, as a matter of fact, some of those same colleges admit students who are woefully illiterate. To guard against a relapse into bad habits, college professors might well insist that all reports and examination papers be legibly written in good English, refusing to accept any compositions which do not meet those requirements. Some professors do this, but others struggle to decipher illegible writing or involved expressions, in order to be sure that the answer to a given question is correctly graded. Perhaps some arrangement might be perfected whereby the Department of English would pass upon selected specimens of the student's daily work, without the student's having previous knowledge of what productions would be thus selected. A rigidly enforced rule denying the baccalaureate degree to any student whose daily use of the English language fell short of a reasonably high standard would further safeguard the reputation of the degree, and inspire the students to a more thorough mastery of our mother tongue. Then the high service rendered by the college would be less obscured by the shortcomings of some of her sons and daughters, and the critics of the college might get a deeper insight into the many real benefits conferred by a college education.

CONFESSIONS OF AN ASSISTANT CLAIRVOYANT

*While this narrative is partly in fiction form, it is essentially a true transcript of one peculiar phase of fraud and humbug in New York City.—*THE EDITORS.

WHEN I first entered "Professor Thelma's" parlor for a "reading," I had not the remotest thought of going into the business myself. It amuses me when I think of it, but I must honestly confess that I am more ashamed of having been his client for fifteen minutes than I am of having been his apprentice and assistant for nearly a year. Probably I am not different from most other people in that I find it harder to admit to a little credulity than to plain humbug. Not that I ever had a very robust faith in mediums or clairvoyants and other purveyors of occult knowledge, but, again like the majority, something down deep in me said, "Who knows, there may be *something* in it!" And then, I was only twenty, and alone and friendless in New York. I had seen Professor Thelma's advertisement in the paper several times: "Reads your life like an open book; gives advice," etc., etc. And certainly I wanted some advice badly.

His parlor was in a brownstone-front house on Forty-fifth Street, just off Broadway. The glass shingle that hung inside the front window bore only the inscription "Thelma;" that and nothing more. There was no appeal to a passing trade. A red-haired, boyish young man opened the door, ushered me into the front room, explained that the Professor would see me presently, and then disappeared down the hallway. Presently the folding doors opened and the Professor appeared.

There was nothing of the mystic in his personal appearance; he might have been a family physician. He was small, elderly, with a fringe of gray hair about a bald head, clean shaven save for a small black mustache; he had a kindly, wrinkled face, and he was plainly dressed in black save for a white vest, across which hung a chain of five-dollar gold pieces. He greeted me with a pleasant smile and ushered me into the read-

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ing-room. The two windows overlooking the back yard had their shades half drawn, making the room quite gloomy, but otherwise there was nothing "spooky" about it; the furniture was plain and conventional. As I realized later, Professor Thelma catered to a high-class clientele.

We sat down for the reading at a plain, square table, one side of which was up against the wall. I said:

"I am in trouble, and I want to see what you can do for me."

He did not answer me immediately, but sat looking at me across the table, scrutinizing me closely. There was a small hour-glass just in front of him, on the table. He turned it over and watched the running sand.

"I don't guarantee success," he said at last, "but I think I can help you. We'll make a test." He got up from the table, went over to a typewriter that stood by the window and began typing. He finished quickly, folded the slip of paper twice, and came back to the table.

"On this piece of paper," he began, "which I have here in my hand I have written something closely concerning your trouble. I want you to take this pad and jot down something pertaining to your life—names, or whatever you like. Then fold your paper and put it away without my seeing it. When you've done that, I'll show you what I've written here and you can judge for yourself whether I can help you."

I did as he told me; took the paper pad, wrote two names, my own and another person's, folded the paper, and put it into my pocket. Meanwhile he had turned the hour-glass and was studying it again. Suddenly he picked up the folded slip of paper on which he had typed and passed it over to me. I opened it; there, in plain typewriting, were the two names I had written.

"Well, Miss Morris," he said, "am I right?"

"You certainly are," I replied, and I was mystified. There seemed no doubt that he had anticipated, by at least three minutes, what I was going to write.

The Professor was silent a while; he seemed to be studying the running sand in the hour-glass, but I was conscious that he watched me closely from the corners of his eyes.

"Your affairs are certainly in a tangle," he said, at last. "This man, Tom Jones, has been playing a very important part in your life, but now he seems to be turning away from you. I think it has been your fault. He thinks you have been cold toward him; you have seemed to avoid him. Still, if you care to undertake three or four readings, I am sure I can bring him back into your life."

My budding faith vanished; I saw what he was driving at. I could hardly keep from laughing.

"Professor," I said, "you are making some mistake. Mr. Jones has six children, one of whom is older than I am. You were right in that he may think I was avoiding him. He is my landlord, and I owe him two months' rent."

The Professor frowned.

"Have you been trying to catch me?" he demanded. I began laughing, and presently he was smiling too.

"I see your trouble now," he said. "You are out of a job."

From then on he dropped the mystic and chatted with me like a man and not a clairvoyant. He was old enough to be my father, and I enjoyed the talk; he began giving me real, human advice. Finally, when I rose to go, I laid a dollar bill down on the table. He smiled at the bill and handed it back to me.

"Give it to Tom Jones," he said. I was going out of the door, when he callled me back.

"Look here," he said, suddenly, "you seem pretty clever. Why not learn this business? My present assistant ought to be doing pick-and-shovel work. I'll give you ten dollars a week while you're learning. Later on there'll be plenty of money in it."

I wanted work badly, so I accepted. Next morning, early, before the day's business began, I turned up to begin my apprenticeship.

"Take a look at that mirror," said the Professor, as soon as I had taken off my hat. He pointed to a long mirror in a massive frame that hung up against the wall, just over one side of the reading table. "Do you see anything peculiar about it?" It seemed to me an ordinary mirror, and I said so.

"All right; now come into the next room." He opened a door behind a hanging, and then I discovered, what I had not suspected before, that the wall against which the mirror hung was only a thin board partition, papered over to correspond with the other three walls of the reading-room and separating it from a small alcove about the size of a hall bedroom. In fact, it had once been a hall bedroom at the end of the front hallway.

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A shade was drawn down over the one window in the rear; so the little room was quite dark. Over against the partition, corresponding to the point where the mirror was suspended in the next room, was a sort of booth, formed of hanging, black curtains.

"Just step inside," said the Professor. I drew back a hanging and went in. I seemed to be looking through a window into the reading-room; the mirror was only plain plate glass. Just below was the reading table. In a flash I understood. While I had written the two names on the pad, somebody had stood inside this booth and seen plainly what I was writing. I looked outside the booth: there was another typewriter in this small room. Naturally, I had not seen the confederate; with all this black drapery behind it, the plate glass had all the appearance of a mirror.

"When the reading begins," explained the Professor, "you step inside, from the side, so that no light strikes the glass from in back. Then you copy down what the person writes, rush over to the typewriter, type it off, fold the paper twice, insert it in the cleft in the end of this stick and shove it through this hole in the partition. It comes out just under my side of the table, and while I am looking at the hour-glass I substitute your paper for mine, which is only a dummy. And, remember, everything depends on quickness."

What other tricks Professor Thelma employed were simply variations of this one. Sometimes he would not use the typewriter at all. The client would write, while he stood looking out of the window. Then I would copy the client's notes, slip them through, he would return to the table, seem to study the hour-glass, but really be reading my notes. Then he would talk to the client, using the notes as a basis. Usually the people wrote their own names; then to have him suddenly address them by name would produce a profound impression. I have never known these tricks fail in their result; I have seen apparently sensible women faint because of the nervous excitement they produced. Naturally, after that the Professor could do what he liked with them; the rest was simply cleverness in reading facial expression and sizing up individual character.

It was not long before I realized what a tremendous business Professor Thelma did. He had hardly finished instructing me in the mechanical basis of his tricks when a richly gowned woman, blazing in diamonds, came in for a reading, and I did my end of the business without a slip. Immediately after another came; we were hardly alone for five minutes during the day—even through the lunch hour. During the first week, before the Professor could trust me to handle the clients alone, he had to slip into my room to eat a few sandwiches instead of going out to lunch. Of course I never became as expert as he, but my training progressed, and by the end of a week I could take his place at the table.

One of my first lessons was in sizing up individuals, but fortunately that came natural to me. I soon saw that you could roughly classify the clients by the time of day when they came. In the morning came the wealthy, bejeweled women, with nothing to do. In the afternoon we got the middle-class women, who had household duties that kept them at home in the morning. And in the evening came the business men and the working classes, of both sexes; clerks, stenographers, shop-girls, and even factory workers.

But that is only a very rough classification. The great revelation to me was not the humbug of the business, nor even the great numbers who came, but the credulity of the apparently high types of people who were as easily humbugged as the humblest servant-girls. I am now convinced that a majority of our educated people, while openly laughing at palmistry, fortune-telling, clairvoyance, and love-charms as relics of the superstitions of the Middle Ages, secretly believe in them.

Naturally, I am not going to give any names, but among Professor Thelma's *regular* clients were men and women whose names are familiar to the public. Most of the men of this higher class were prosperous business men who came to consult the Professor about new business ventures. One was a man whose name is known to every man, woman, and child in this country as the maker of a much-advertised article. Another was a young lawyer whose name I have repeatedly seen in the papers in connection with big criminal cases. In his profession I suppose he must have been very clever, but to me, studying him from behind the magic mirror, he seemed about as credulous a fool as I have ever known. In his first reading the Professor accidentally told him that he had undeveloped powers of "second sight."

"And could it be developed, Professor?" he asked. Of course the Professor said that it could—through a course of "readings," which would cost ten dollars a reading.

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"There are seven stages," said the Professor. "Most people are in the first stage, but you are already in the third. Each stage is more difficult to pass than the one before it."

So the young lawyer began to come to have his "second sight" developed; and, altogether, I think the Professor got several hundred dollars out of him.

Another regular though not quite so frequent client was a Wall Street broker who came for advice in business deals; he really thought the Professor could predict the rise and fall of the stock market. He paid liberally for his readings, but I know that the Professor was the one to get the benefits. He welcomed Wall Street clients, and never gave them any opportunity to suspect that he was overcharging them; he always left the size of the fee to them. All the clairvoyants were after this trade; but, as I learned later, there were two or three clairvoyants who almost monopolized it and were making their own fortunes on the credulity of Wall Street brokers.

Among the women who came almost daily for a long period was a famous actress who was then running a whole season in a Broadway theater just around the corner from us. So pleased was she with our readings that she sent almost every member of her company around.

It may seem incredible, but among just such types of people, of high professional standing, we did a big business in charms and love philters and balms. To the young lawyer I have mentioned, we sold a salve which he was to rub into his chest just over his heart to ease the pain from a love affair he had had. I had prepared the salve, or "balm," myself, just as I prepared them all; it was composed of nothing but potato pulp. Sometimes I used turnip. The love powders were plain baking soda. We did a thriving mail order business in these commodities.

But making notes behind the magic mirror and preparing love potions were not my only duties. After the mechanical trickery had produced the first impression on the client, the reading might last twenty minutes or half an hour. Having done my part, I would slip on my hat, coat, and gloves, pass out into the front hallway and enter the reception room. There I would sit, apparently a client myself, getting into conversation with the other clients. That was never difficult; I hardly ever had to speak first. I would usually choose the prosperous-looking women who would pay well if very deeply impressed.

"Have you been here before?" some one would ask me.

"Oh, yes; I come here often."

"Then he's good at it?"

"Wonderful! He really frightens me at times. Everything he has ever told me has come true." Then I would become very confidential and tell how the Professor had delved into my life. Confidence begets confidence, and soon I would know as much about that woman's affairs as she knew herself. Then, when the folding doors opened, I would slip back to my room, and before that woman had seated herself at the table I would have jotted down the salient facts she had given me and slipped them through to the Professor, which he would read while apparently studying the hour-glass. And the Professor could handle those facts cleverly; he would not fling them crudely at his subject, but play with them, twist them about, rearrange them, until he had worked the poor woman up to a point bordering on nervous hysteria.

With all his shrewdness, the Professor had one weakness which would have hampered him greatly had he been alone: he could not remember faces. To his delight he soon found that I never forgot a face. It was very important to remember, for it was those who came again who proved the most profitable. Naturally, not to have recognized them would have looked bad in one with the Professor's occult powers. So whenever I recognized a visitor as having been there before, I would tip the Professor off. We had a regularly worked out cipher code; 28 on the paper I slipped in meant "A fresh one; never here before." That would usually be an answer to a signal from the Professor; he rubbed the back of his head when he wanted to know "Has this one been here before?" 33 meant "Here once before;" 44 signified "Been here several times;" an 8 added indicated that on previous occasions this client had paid liberally. 52, on the contrary, meant "Don't fool with this one; hasn't much money." If necessary I would jot down a few added details. Before the client had finished his or her introductory remarks the Professor would be fully posted.

Some of the cases we had stand out very clearly in my memory. I think it was I who first noticed that two of our regular clients were related to each other—husband and wife. He was a Bronx policeman and had had a violent quarrel with his wife, and he

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feared that she had ceased to care for him. Not long after a young, pretty woman came in with an almost similar complaint. Comparing their names and stories, there was no doubt about the relationship. So for some time the Professor would impress the one with the facts he had got from the other. Finally, when the Professor thought he had bled them enough, he determined to bring them together. One day he said to the man:

"I think I am near the end of my efforts in your case. Your wife's mind begins to respond to my treatment." He half closed his eyes and looked at the running sand in the hour-glass. "I see your wife," he continued; "I've never seen her so plainly. She's crying—yes, she is crying because she is just beginning to realize that she does love you. But you mustn't act too quickly or you'll spoil everything. I shall make one more big effort, but it will only cost you ten dollars. This will be the last reading, and I guarantee success. When you see your wife wearing a blue ribbon in her hair go up and kiss her, and you'll be joined together again. Remember, now, don't go near her until you see the blue ribbon, even if it takes some days."

The policeman paid his ten dollars and went. A few days later his wife came in.

"I have a charm here that will work without fail," said the Professor. "It will cost you five dollars, but the moment your husband sets eyes on it he will come to you at once." She paid the five dollars and went with the blue ribbon. For over a month we saw neither of them, but finally the woman came again, bringing a friend. This time she had other troubles to consult about, but if the Professor had wanted her to kiss his hand she would have done it. I never saw such blind faith and gratitude.

While the regular cost of a reading was supposed to be one dollar, the Professor always managed to make each client pay up according to his or her means. The wealthy women from Riverside Drive he fleeced unmercifully, especially those that came to consult him about illicit love affairs. Many of them also came to consult him about the stock market; they often wanted to increase their allowances by speculation that would give speedy results. These were the occasions on which he would go into a trance; he would seat himself crosslegged on a couch in a corner of the room, take a long pull at a Turkish water-pipe, and seem to sink into unconsciousness. During these periods he would investigate the stock market and ascertain which stocks were going up rapidly within the next few days. And, incredible though it may seem, he usually persuaded these women to intrust him with the investment of their money. Sometimes the certificates of stock he procured for them were genuine enough and—sometimes they were not.

But the Professor wasn't all the time so greedy. One day an elderly, plainly clad woman came in. She was a janitress in an apartment-house over in Brooklyn; her husband had deserted her, and she wanted to know if the Professor could locate him and perhaps bring him back into her life. Of course there was no trick in getting information out of her; she began talking and couldn't be stopped—her life was one long battle with illness, poverty, and despair. Three small children were dependent on her. It was not that she was dying for love of her husband, but she wanted him back to help in the struggle.

The Professor heard her out, then said:

"I'll try to do what I can for you. Perhaps I can work on your husband's mind to bring him back." He went on with this sort of talk until, callous as I had grown, I began to feel rather disgusted with him. It seemed to me horrible to be filling the poor soul's mind with false hopes. Finally, when she rose to go, she asked:

"The reading is one dollar, Professor?"

"Yes; one dollar." She laid down a two-dollar bill; in fact, she had been holding it in her hand. The Professor took the bill, then handed her back another bill, saying:

"Here's your change."

She looked at the bill he had given her.

"You've made a mistake," she said; "this is ten dollars."

"No, it isn't," he replied, very sharply. "I know a dollar bill when I see it." Then he took her arm and almost forcibly led her out of the room.

On another occasion we had an almost similar case—a poor woman who had been deserted by her husband and was left with several children on her hands. However, it is not the Professor's treatment of this case that stands out in my mind. The woman had brought her youngest child with her, a three-year-old girl. I became so absorbed in the woman's story that I kept my head very close to the window, listening, when suddenly the child cried out:

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"Look, mamma! Look! See the lady's face in the looking-glass!"

The woman looked up quickly, just in time to see my face disappear, then she let out an awful shriek. The Professor tried to calm her, but, of course, he could not tell the truth, and the poor woman went away convinced that a spirit had looked out at her from the looking-glass.

As my training progressed I began getting acquainted with other members of the profession. Ours was the only parlor in Forty-fifth Street at that time; but in the next block, over in Forty-sixth Street, there were at least half a dozen of the parlors, between Broadway and Sixth Avenue, each of them handling just about as big a volume of business as we were. Before they got to know me by appearance the Professor sent me to make the rounds as a client to consult them, to see if I could size up some of their tricks. In some cases, with my experience behind me and with my purpose in mind, I succeeded. In one case I discovered something that was new even to the Professor; the clairvoyant had a wire running up into his hair. I remembered that there had been a very inquisitive client in the reception-room; putting the two incidents together, we surmised that the confederate communicated from some other room by means of a telephone. Then there was the trick of developing invisible writing by passing the hand over it. I saw the clairvoyant put his hand into his pocket. That, the Professor told me, was an old one. The pocket was rubber lined and contained a sponge soaked in sulphuric acid. The clairvoyant had only to squeeze it with his hand and pass it over the paper. Another more common trick, used by the cheap clairvoyants, is to have the client write on a pad, in which, under several of the top sheets, is hidden a carbon paper, leaving the client's notes visible underneath. But all the tricks are based on the client's writing something, or talking. If, as happens on rare occasions, the client will do neither, then all depends on sizing up character, Sherlock Holmes fashion.

But aside from this monopoly of individual tricks, all of the clairvoyants hung pretty much together, and, I believe, worked together on occasional big deals pertaining to the sale of shares. As the Professor and I became more intimate, he often took me out to supper after we had finished our work in the evening, especially if we had worked a little overtime. In this way I came to meet the others. In spite of their fraudulent vocations, they were personally very charming—generous, jolly, warm-hearted, and very considerate toward me, though I was the only woman in the lot. I never had reason to complain once at even a suggestion of rudeness or improper conduct. But what struck me in the very beginning was their professional attitudes toward each other; not once did any one of them so much as hint that there was any fake in the business. They would talk over their cases together, and solemnly state that they were "working" on this one's lover or that one's husband, hoping to bring about a closer sympathy between them. Never so much as a wink.

And even with me the Professor's attitude was the same. Nothing made him so angry as any allusion I might make to our fake methods.

"Let me tell you," he said once, very severely, "that it isn't all fake. There's a lot in it. But when you make a business of it, why, then, like every business, you've got to introduce some fake into it. The real thing won't always work, but it's there just the same."

And even to the last day I was with him the Professor insisted that that fraud of a mirror, through which I humbugged our clients, had been imported from India.

One day, about a month before I decided to go into another kind of employment, the Professor came rushing in in a hurry, went into the front room, and took down the glass shingle with his professional name on it. Then he told me to turn the clients away—either ask them to return next week or recommend them to some of the other parlors over in Forty-sixth Street. After that he went out.

An hour later he returned with an elderly woman. I was sitting typewriting some horoscopes, in which we did a big mail order business.

"Anna," said the Professor, "this is Miss Morris, my stenographer. Miss Morris, this is my sister, from Buffalo; she's down on a few days' visit to take in the sights. You will kindly look after the business while I am away. I shall drop in again toward evening."

For three days I saw little of the Professor; then he came back and we resumed business. I learned then that Anna was his sister, a school-teacher in Buffalo, and that she was firmly convinced that he carried or a legitimate business as a salesman. And this deception toward her he had carried on for over twenty years.

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THE SPECTATOR

"STEWARD, a finger-bowl, please." The Spectator had just finished his orange before taking breakfast the first morning after leaving America. The man, otherwise most attentive, stood stock still. "Very sorry, sir. We have no finger-bowls on this boat. They are to be found on the first-class steamers, however, I believe." Except for this incident and the slighty less variety in the table fare the Spectator would not have known that he was traveling second-class. It seemed to him stupid to pay a big price for his ocean voyage in an over-luxurious floating hotel when he could pay about fifty dollars for a trip on a boat quite comfortable enough which carried no first-class—thus saving his feelings, because the second was the highest class possible on that particular vessel!

The Spectator had heard that the steamers now given up to second-class and steerage passengers were "ratty old tubs." Rats there might have been on the Spectator's boat, but the Spectator did not see or hear one. The steamer itself and its bed and linen seemed entirely clean. As for the service, the Spectator never saw better, despite the fact that not over four-fifths of the usual first-class fee was expected.

The quality of the passenger list compared favorably with any. This was particularly evident in one feature which the Spectator did not remember to have noted in any of his crossings, namely, the complete absence of gambling in the smoking-room. Not only was there no card-playing or dice-throwing for money, there was not even a pool sold on the chances of the day's run. The officers, too, seemed the equals of any. The captain was just the sort of man to inspire confidence. He was a strict disciplinarian. His authority was felt everywhere—in the galley as on deck. Yet he was a jolly tar as well, and always ready for a joke with the passengers, especially with some young buds of the gentler sex who were crossing for the first time. On gala occasions he looked a Jupiter, his strong face and beard set off by his dark-blue frock coat, against which gleamed not only the gilt buttons and the four stripes of his rank, but also a well-earned medal.

What ruler of any civilized community in all the world, thought the Spectator, enjoys such absolute authority as does a sea-captain? The Spectator recalled the case one year of a generous but foolish woman who was amusing herself by throwing pennies from the first-class deck down to the steerage, where the crowd was making frantic efforts to capture them. There was a dense mass of Southern Europeans on that steerage deck. They were quickly in a perfect panic of greed. It looked as if some one might get hurt in the general scrimmage. So an officer stepped up and suggested his fear to the lady. She replied: "I guess that's my business." The officer then reminded her that if she persisted it would lessen the good order which he was pledged to maintain. But the passenger persisted. More pennies, more scrimmage. Then the officer said that he would have to speak to the captain. "Do as you like," answered the lady, scornfully. The officer reported the incident. Down came the captain. "Madam, my officer has twice expressed his desire that the penny-throwing shall cease. You have refused. I now *command* you to stop"—and, noting the woman's rebellious look, added: "We have a safe room for those who disobey me." Only then, face to face with the final authority, was the passenger forced to cease her doubtless generously meant sport.

To the Spectator, everything at sea seems singularly vivid. A few hours after leaving port the other day the Spectator noted that the vessel had nearly reached the big pilot-boat outside. At this juncture one of the women passengers received a wireless telegram informing her that her mother had suddenly died. It was already night. The rowboat from the big pilot yacht had difficulty in coming alongside. There was more difficulty in holding the boat against the great ocean liner until the pilot could descend and get in. Then the passengers looking over the rail saw some seamen form a line. Down the line fluttered a slight figure—the poor bereaved girl whose European sojourn had suddenly been cut short. Strong hands guided her and strong arms lifted her into the boat just as a wave was at its crest. Another moment and the boat disappeared in the darkness.

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THE NEW BOOKS

A POET OF SCIENCE[1]

"*Laborare est orare*," said Carlyle; and Fabre, too, felt that "work is worship." His life was a continuous evidence of this belief, and *work* is the burden of his counsel to his younger brother, much beloved by him, and, as he said, his best friend. He writes:

Science, Frédéric, knowledge, is everything. You are too good a thinker not to say with me that no one can better employ his time than by acquiring fresh knowledge. . . . Work, then, when you have the opportunity—an opportunity that very few may possess, and for which you ought to be only too thankful.

Fabre saw in knowledge, not merely the means of earning his living (a dire necessity with him from boyhood), but "something nobler—the means of raising the spirit in the contemplation of truth, of isolating it at will from the miseries of reality, so to find, in these intellectual regions, the only hours of happiness that we may be permitted to taste."

And here is the lesson he gives his brother regarding his own methods of study when released from the thraldom of teaching "dirty, unmannerly young scoundrels," as he calls them, but whose respect he nevertheless managed to win, for he knew how, when talking lightly, to teach them the most serious things:

You choose a quiet retreat where the light is not too strong. There you are, elbows on table, your thumbs to your ears, and a book in front of you. The intelligence awakes; the will holds the reins of it; the outer world disappears, the ear no longer hears, the eye no longer sees, the body no longer exists; the mind . . . recollects itself; . . . its insight increases. The hours pass quickly; time has no measure. What a day, great God! But hosts of truth are grouped in the memory; the difficulties which checked you yesterday have fused in the fire of reflection; volumes have been devoured, and you are content with your day. . . . Above all, you must not be discouraged; time is nothing provided the will is alert; . . . strength will come as you travel. . . . Try for a few days the force of patience, strength, and perseverance, and you will see that nothing is impossible.

Truly these sentences might profitably form the preface of many a text-book! We quote thus at length because what Fabre says about himself is vastly more important than what his biographer has to tell. Like Carlyle, Fabre is, in his works and letters, his own most faithful biographer. His text-books, luminous and interesting, opened up a new world to students who had grown pale and discouraged over the second-rate natural histories, stuffed with dry statements, that had been placed before them; he is justly called "the poet of science." Darwin, in his "Origin of Species," speaks of Fabre as "the inimitable observer." To the gift of observation he added the more difficult and important one of luminous interpretation. While science and medicine recognize the value of his discoveries, he had also been able to make direct application of the marvels of entomology to some practical problems of hygiene and domestic science. To name but two instances: he proves the uselessness of our meat safes of metallic gauze intended to preserve meat against contamination, and the efficacy of a mere envelope of paper to preserve meat from flies and our garments from the clothes-moth; and he recommends the Provençal recipe of boiling suspected mushrooms in salt and water before eating them.

"Each thing created," says Emerson, "has its painter or its poet." Like the enchanted princess of the fairy tales, it awaits its predestined liberator; and to Fabre the tiny insects buried in the soil have evoked the most important, fascinating problems and have revealed a world of miracle and poetry. Let us turn again to his own words:

The infinitesimal calculus of Leibnitz will show you that the architecture of the Louvre is less learned than that of a snail: the eternal geometer has unrolled his transcendental spirals on the shell of the mollusc that you, like the vulgar profane, know only seasoned with spinach and Dutch cheese.

Through many years of poverty, rebuff, and discouragement Fabre courageously kept up his shield; and now he is spending the last years of his life in honor in his cottage in Serignan, in the Department of Vaucluse, a few miles distant from the little village where the other great French peasant, Mistral, the singer of Provence, has lived out the cycle of his joyous existence. This biography is particularly interesting because it treats of a man still in the flesh, and there is available that greatest opportunity of knowing a great man—visiting him in his own country.

[1] Fabre, Poet of Science. By Dr. C. V. Legros. Translated by Bernard Miall. The Century Company, New York. $3.

Thunderhead Lady (The). By Anna Fuller and Brian Read. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $1.

A facetious advertisement by a Harvard graduate, signed Mere Man, for "a permanent position as husband," calls out a clever reply from a Mere Woman. The ensuing correspondence is a fencing of wits, light and moderately amusing; yet, small as the book is, one wearies

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a little of the persiflage before the inevitable end comes.

Tiger. By Witter Bynner. Mitchell Kennerley, New York. 60c.

With the best of intentions Mr. Bynner has added his mite to the growing stock of modern pornographic literature. From the dual viewpoint of art and morals "Tiger" is both offensively unnecessary and unnecessarily offensive.

Book of Evelyn (The). By Geraldine Bonner. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis. $1.25.

A lodging-house story about newspaper people, artists, models, with an opera singer and her part as the central theme. The tale is told with animation, and has some merit as a study of temperament; but it belongs to the minor division of current fiction.

David Malcolm. By Nelson Lloyd. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $1.25.

Mr. Lloyd describes with quiet sympathy the life in a New York valley town. The story is carefully written, but lacks force as regards situation and action. Too little is made of the best character in the book, a vagabondish and irate philosopher who appears for a brief minute at the beginning and then disappears for his world-wanderings until near the end of the story.

Aladdin from Broadway. By Frederic S. Isham. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis. $1.25.

It is well known that a Mohammedan can divorce his wife by saying to her three times, in the presence of witnesses, "I divorce thee." But sometimes he repents; then the divorcée must marry another man and be redivorced before her original husband can remarry her. But suppose the beggarly dervish, hired to play the part of second husband, is a handsome young American in disguise; and suppose the beautiful young bride, for reasons of her own, doesn't want him to say the fateful "I divorce thee"? Well, anybody could make a story with that much start! Mr. Isham amuses one pleasantly for an hour or so.

Woman Thou Gavest Me (The). By Hall Caine. The J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia. $1.35.

The verbosity and excitability of Mr. Caine's manner of writing make his novels hard to read. One remembers with regret his earlier fiction, such as "The Deemster" and "The Manxman," when life and character were dealt with as materials for art; in his later books (this is his first novel since "The White City" of four years ago) melodramatic situations and turgid rhetoric are the rule, and there is an almost frantic effort to enlist popular discussion of unquestioned evils. To keep a young girl in ignorance of the facts of life, to urge her into a loveless marriage with a roué, are doubtless an almost sure way to wreck her life; but Mr. Caine is not the first to recognize that danger nor to point out the defects of the divorce law in England. It is possible that his book may do good; that his intention is good must be granted; but the mixture of sentiment, high-flown language, and unnecessarily bold discussion of the marriage relation makes reading disagreeable and tedious. In short, he has overshot his mark, and, although the book will probably reach a large number of readers, it will not leave a permanent impression.

Laddie. By Gene Stratton-Porter. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. $1.35.

The many thousands of readers who enjoyed "Freckles" and "A Girl of the Limberlost" will not be disappointed in "Laddie." We shall be greatly surprised if it does not quickly take its place among the best sellers. It deserves to, much more than many books which attain that not altogether unquestioned honor. It may not be "literature" in the special sense, but it is human nature clear through, and therefore entitled to the author's sub-title, "a true blue story." The story, like its predecessors, is simple, honest, and natural; its fun is genuine; its manner is unassuming; and in the narrative of a "Little Sister" who grows up as one of a family of twelve in Indiana it gives a pleasing picture of home life, with a special enthusiasm about out-of-door things. The plot is the weakest point, but this is exactly the kind of story in which the plot matters very little.

Story of My Heart (The). By Richard Jefferies. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $2.50.

No book is more entitled to be called a modern classic than Jefferies's charming description of his own subjective life (for he tells extremely little about outward circumstances) and his analysis of the love of nature and the unknown. This edition is beautifully illustrated with colored pictures by E. W. Waite; and in all respects it is one that any lover of nature and of literature will be glad to treasure.

Salisbury Plain. By Ella Noyes. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $3.50.

The author has made a thorough study of the historical associations of Salisbury itself, with its famous Cathedral, of Old Sarum, and, of course, of the wonderful Stonehenge relics of antiquity. The volume is copiously illustrated by Dora Noyes; many of the pictures are in color. Its size and detailed treatment make the volume perhaps better suited for the public library than for the private reader, unless the latter has a special individual interest in the subject; nevertheless, the beauty of the book as a book and the graphic narrative insure a reasonable amount of popular interest in the work.

Life and Public Services of Andrew Haswell Green. By John Foord. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York.

Every believer in municipal good government will be glad to see honored the unostentatious and unselfish career of one of New York City's worthiest public men. Mr. Foord has thrown into vivid relief the actual accomplishment of Mr. Green in New York's betterment. The

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narrative is one that bears on its face its own lesson and moral. Because of his part in the creation of Central Park, in his management of the Comptroller's office, in the long struggle with the Tweed Ring, and in many other ways, Andrew H. Green left an abiding memory in the metropolis. One cannot better summarize the value of his work and the modest efficiency of the man than to quote, as Mr. Foord does, from one who knew him intimately: "He was not a leader in any powerful political organization; he had no pecuniary or honorary rewards to offer. Yet that plain, quiet citizen, past the ordinary span of human life, sitting in his Broadway office and there talking or otherwise communicating with one influential personage after another, was able to do more for the accomplishment of such a public object as the establishment of the Niagara Reservation or the creation of the Greater New York than any public official in this State, or, one might almost say, any company of men who could be assembled in this town."

Ancient Ideals. By Henry Osborn Taylor, Litt.D. In 2 vols. The Macmillan Company, New York. $5.

Ancient history is here presented in its most instructive and fruitful form by a veteran scholar. For history must concern itself not only with men's doings, but with the ideas from which their conduct springs. If, like the Greek poet, "we boast that we are much better than our fathers," it is because of better ideals. The evolution of humanity from raw to ripe essentially consists in the evolution of these through an experience of trial and error. This it is the fundamental interest of history to inquire into and exhibit. To this these valuable volumes are devoted. Egypt, Chaldæa, China, India, Persia, Greece, Rome, Israel, move in succession across the stage. In the art and literature, the philosophy and religion, the conduct and political fortunes of each, their ideals are disclosed, and the part taken by each in the human drama is exhibited with whatever of permanent value it contributed toward a riper development. Thus the historian leads up to Christianity and the broader humanity its founder ushered into the Roman world, "comprising all the valid elements of previous life and thought." The ideals of ancient races are, of course, most clearly reflected in their literatures, and choice quotations from these abound. The author, elsewhere quoting from translations, pays a compliment to many readers by quoting the Roman poets in their vernacular Latin. His peculiarly Christian interest is seen in the somewhat disproportionate space given to the New Testament writings. His comments thereon in the line of liberal evangelical thought are intent on spiritual reality, discriminating this from the form given it by the ideas of that time. In summing up all its preceding stages of halted progress, the evolution of mental and spiritual life is shown as reaching ripeness in the Christianity of Christ. For it is "the universal reconcilement of life's oppositions, the sacrifice of self unto self's absolute fulfillment."

Religious Life of the Anglo-Saxon Race. By M. V. B. Knox. Sherman, French & Co., Boston. $2.

In exhibiting the various phases of development through which the religious life of the English-speaking race has passed from the fifth century to the twentieth, Dr. Knox has digested a vast amount of material into a volume of many-sided interest. Churchmen and statesmen, monarchs and missionaries, periods of decadence and revival, revolution and reform, pass before us in rapid movement, as the old order ever changes into new. Laws, institutions, and customs social and religious appear and cease to be. Schools and universities spring up and grow, the spirit of philanthropy awakes, new religious and social movements rise. Humble workers for human welfare are seen in their part among its pioneers, while science is doing its enlightening work. The entire narrative is starred with illustrious names; it is full of human interest. The scene is mostly in England. The last ten of its fifty-three chapters transfer it to the United States and the British Dominions beyond the seas.

Philosophy of the Present in Germany (The). By Oswald Kulpe. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.

The present conflict of philosophies may give to many, as it does to the author of this bright and keen little book, the impression of a "'pathological interlude' of philosophical anarchy." It gives him, however, an inspiring "glimpse of a possible fruitful unison of philosophical efforts and results." He reaches this through a comparative study of the four representative schools of thought whose leaders he introduces to speak for them severally. Ernst Mach and Eugen Dühring speak for Positivism, Ernst Haeckel for Materialism, Friedrich Nietzsche for Naturalism, Gustav Theodor Fechner, Hermann Lotze, Eduard von Hartmann, and Wilhelm Wundt for Idealism. From a clear, concise, and keen critique of their philosophies he comes to his conclusion that "a new realm is already rising slowly but surely from the receding ocean of the future." This is the realm of "the new Idealism," which "seeks and finds an ideal meaning in all knowledge." New as contrasted with the subjective idealism of Berkeley and his successors, it is characteristically objective in its alliance with the special sciences in their pursuit of positive reality. As inductive rather than deductive, it clears the way for a new metaphysics, at once adopting and transcending the old in its theory of life and the world. A right good text-book is this for college use.

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THE READER'S VIEW

THE PARCEL POST AND THE EXPRESS COMPANIES

In the numerous periodicals issued I notice that scarcely any mention is made of the great good the parcel post has done for the express companies. To those not acquainted with the facts of the case, this assertion might be accepted as sarcasm, but, nevertheless, in our case it is true, and I have no doubt that it is the same in the cases of many other manufacturers. The following are the facts:

On January 1, 1913, when the Parcel Post Law went into effect, we were about to publish a catalogue. Naturally, a catalogue of this character, which describes every article we manufacture, requires energy, time, expense of publication and mailing, etc. The tradespeople who receive this catalogue very seldom use it as a medium from which to order, as a clear idea cannot be conceived of the workmanship and the value of the article by inspecting a cut. Therefore, having no other means of examining merchandise, they simply risk placing very small orders.

However, when the Parcel Post Law went into effect, instead of publishing a catalogue we decided to take advantage of the low rates afforded by the service, and send samples, one of each and every number we manufacture. We then sent circular letters to all our customers, asking them whether they would prefer to have us send them a catalogue or to see the actual samples of the merchandise. During the first week after sending out this circular fifty-eight per cent of our customers requested samples sent by parcel post, and within the next two weeks almost ninety per cent had replied, stating more or less enthusiastically that they would rather see samples than order from a catalogue.

Our next step was to pack our samples, and every day for two months an enormous amount of packages, each weighing four pounds, were delivered by us to the post-office.

It was certainly most amusing to note the sorrowful expression on the faces of the drivers of the express companies, who daily call at our place, when they witnessed the loads of packages being shipped by parcel post, fearing, perhaps, that should every firm use this service as extensively as we, they would shortly find themselves out of employment.

From time to time the representatives of the express companies called on us to solicit. We, of course, did not hesitate to state that we used the parcel post to a great extent. However, they argued that our methods were wrong, stating that we do not receive a receipt for our shipments, that deliveries are not effected as promptly as by express, that packages are not properly handled, and many other points.

Well, the result of our customers having seen samples of our merchandise was that they all, with very few exceptions, placed very large orders, the equal of which we had never before received. Such orders weighed from twenty-five to one hundred pounds, and a few were heavier. Then it was that we realized what the parcel post had done for the express companies, as, of course, these large orders had to be shipped by express, and instead of a few small express shipments leaving our place daily, as previously, numerous and large shipments were substituted.

In view of this fact, our monthly express bills are as much as two hundred per cent larger than they were at this time last year.

This has been my experience; and I presume many others, perhaps in different lines of business and in various ways, have come to a similar conclusion, because, as we read in the daily papers, the express companies have increased their gross volume of business. D. M. BALSAM.

D. M. Balsam Company, Brooklyn, New York.

IN DEFENSE OF THE RAILWAYS

In an editorial on "Some Current Railway Questions" The Outlook seems to treat with tolerance, at least, the proposal to make "physical valuation" the "basis of laws regulating the railways." Though a layman without technical knowledge of the general railway problem, I venture to express what seem to me, in the light of some general principles, to be fatal objections to the proposal.

Apparently you would have us regard as "overcapitalized" every railway whose volume of stock exceeds the amount of capital required to replace the physical property. This does not seem to me just. Even if we take as the measure of value the original cost, should we not reckon other elements than the physical? If the artist's colors are "mixed with brains," is it less true that the railway properties of the country are also mixed with brains, and that the brains in them constitute an important part of their cost? We can but recognize that, in the solution of the practical problems encountered in the construction and development of any great railway system, there has been expended an immense amount of "gray matter" which would not be represented at all in the present cost of replacing the road. To this factor are due the wise location of the road in relation to the natural resources of the country, the economical construction, the choice of suitable equipment, the development of an economical and efficient administration, and a great many other things that affect the value of the property. In a present replacement of the physical property none of these expensive problems would have to be solved anew; the solutions already reached would simply be appropriated. Now, in our appraisement of a given

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road, how much should we include for this element of cost which we have called "gray matter"? Brains of this sort, let us remember, can command great rewards and sell at a high price in the open market; and this for no other reason than that they are intrinsically valuable. In our estimate of the original cost of a railway, would it not be fair to add for this factor a sum equal to one-half, say, of the "physical valuation"? Assuming that, on account of the unique relation of the railways to the public, some sort of governmental regulation is expedient, why should that regulation ignore a value-factor which is recognized in every other business?

Again, should we not count as a part of the original cost a considerable compensation for the inevitable risk involved in any project which builds on a forecast of the future? So great is this risk that, as is well known, more than half the new projects of the wisest men meet with ultimate failure. Strict justice would require, it seems, that we add to the price of the physical factors of any railway another fifty per cent at least for risks accepted by the original investors. I say investors, not promoters; for the two classes must be carefully distinguished. The promoters, I suspect, incurred little risk, if any, and, when their promotions succeeded, received no doubt a large reward for their services; but, whether this reward was large or small, it was another one of the necessary expenses paid by those who supplied the capital, and must, as well as the risk, be regarded as a part of the original cost.

Then, as part of this original cost, should we not reckon also interest during the period of construction and development on the invested capital which yielded as yet no return? Some roads built half a century ago are still in this development period, as is shown by the frequent passing of dividends. The Missouri Pacific, for example, has paid no dividends since 1907.

Thus far we have assumed that the original investors in a given railway are the present owners, and also that the measure of real value is the original cost. If these assumptions were true, a resort to physical valuation would be unjust. Both assumptions, however, are false, but physical valuation appears no less unjust in the light of the true state of the case. The present owners of the railways are the present stockholders, most of whom have bought their stock from time to time at the market price—a price determined chiefly by the earning power, present and prospective, of the property under normal political and industrial conditions; and this, by the way, is what we apprehend to be the true measure of value. At any rate, it represents the value possessed by railway properties for the present owners, and is the value which the Government must recognize in its dealings with the roads, unless it intends to commit robbery. In this connection, to talk about "physical valuation" seems to the writer, who, as a Progressive, shares with the rest of his party the hunger for social righteousness, to be not only irrelevant but immoral.

In view of the prevailing hostility to the railways, which seems to me so unjust and pernicious, I cannot refrain from hinting in conclusion at the inestimable value of the services they are constantly rendering to society. Compare the cost of transportation by rail with that by dray. Yesterday I paid a railway fifty-four cents for carrying several hundred pounds forty miles, and a drayman twenty-five cents (a very moderate charge) for carrying the same things a quarter of a mile. To bring a bed by rail from Boston, a distance of 1,500 miles, it cost me a short time ago the munificent sum of one dollar. How much would it have cost me by dray? The present letter will be conveyed to The Outlook, a distance of 1,000 miles, for two cents. Before the railways came into existence, it cost, as I happen to know, twenty-five cents to send a letter from Troy to New York City. Is it not true that, although we are paying the railways millions, we are actually receiving from them tens of millions in valuable service?

E. E. POWELL.

Oxford, Ohio.

COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

The dissatisfaction with the present college entrance requirements is widespread and increasing; a recent writer urges the schools to throw off the incubus of the present absurd college requirements. The difficulty has perhaps grown naturally, and has come to assume undue dimensions only in recent years. The curricula of the schools have been "enriched" by adding new courses and studies. The colleges have had to meet this demand, but it has been at the expense of the scholars, and therefore of the schools and colleges.

The criticism on all hands is that the graduates of our colleges are superficial. The best students we have are in general the Rhodes scholars, yet the Oxford authorities complain of their superficiality; the business men who employ college graduates make the same complaint. Forty years ago this charge was not common; it is comparatively recent, and, if examined carefully, will be found to be contemporaneous with the increased entrance requirements. During this same period the average age of admission has increased from two to three years.

The only conclusion is that there are too many subjects. The examinations are not too severe nor the requirements too hard, but there are too many of them. No man would take a boy of fourteen into his shop or office, give him eight or ten unrelated subjects and expect him to know them all well in three or four years, as the colleges demand. A boy has so many dif-

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ferent things to learn that it is impossible for him to do them well. The work is a constant struggle to cover the ground; all has to be given up to this. The boy is hurried from one subject to another; he has no time for thought or to learn to think. A premium is put on tutoring; good teaching, and indeed education, have to be sacrificed.

Formerly there were only three subjects. Harvard has taken a great step in the right direction in requiring only four in its new plan; but this helps only a little, as it requires a certificate that the other studies have all been taken.

The exceptionally bright student is the only one who, at seventeen, enters college without conditions, as is shown by the fact that the average age of admission is nineteen. With fewer subjects the bright boy could be helped to do advanced work, and perhaps anticipate some college course; the dull boy could have time to be helped; the average boy could enter college without conditions at seventeen.

The pressure is still to increase the number of subjects, but that has proved a failure. There should be only four examinations, which should correspond in difficulty to the present final requirements. A boy can learn four subjects and know something about them. Now he knows a very little about a great many subjects; superficiality can be the only result. The colleges recognize this and allow only four or five courses a year, and yet make boys, before they enter college, take five or six different studies.

"The exactitude of what the eye sees will always be more important than its extent; . . . it is certain that the accurate knowledge of a single case is more serviceable to judgment than the survey of a thousand shrouded in mist. In fact, the old saying, *non multa, sed multum*, proves to be universally true." It would seem unnecessary to write a defense of the value of concentration; but the power of concentration, of fixed and sustained attention, is, as far as possible, destroyed by this multiplicity of subjects.

ROLAND J. MULFORD
(Head Master.)
Ridgefield School,
Ridgefield, Connecticut.

WHY WE LAUGH

In the August 9 number of The Outlook you publish an article by H. Addington Bruce on "Why We Laugh." It seems to me, as is so often the case with common questions, that the attempts at an answer have been unduly involved. Laughter is a purely reflex expression; it is almost unconscious in its spontaneity. As Mr. Bruce has said, it is an attribute of childhood; and its appearance in later life is but a return to our early heritage. We all know that laughter is an expression of emotion and closely linked with other such expressions, "laughter and tears," and often its inordinate expression becomes hysterical. In other words, our emotions have been excited, and this is but the reflex expression—the safety valve to carry off the surplus energy. For whenever our emotions are "touched," there is generated a motive impulse whose intensity is proportionate to the degree of our disturbance. If there be not some expression of that motive impulse in action, there must be a violent effort of repression; this not only consumes energy, but, if often repeated, blunts the perceptions. Therefore laughter and tears are but nature's outlets for our appreciations; they constitute the best way of taking care of the surplus motive impulses that are not expressed otherwise in action.

This explanation easily accounts for the frequency of laughter in children, and its beneficial effects upon the more advanced in life. It explains in no way, however, what we laugh at, as the avenues of our appreciation are individual, and depend upon each one's accumulations of associations.

We laugh because we must—it is necessary for self-protection to relieve the emotional stress. As Mr. Bruce so aptly quotes the common saying, "I just had to laugh or bust."

SCOTT C. RUNNELLS.
Little Rock, Arkansas.

A TERRIBLE OFFENSE!

Do you know that, according to the laws and court decisions of the State of Kansas concerning the use of text-books in the public schools of the State, it is an offense, punishable by fine or imprisonment, or both, for any teacher, superintendent, or school officer to allow the children to use in school in his study of reading "Robinson Crusoe," Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress," "Arabian Nights," "Shakespeare," or any of the great things that have been written in the English language other than the portions that appear in the scraps in our text-books in reading?

The text-books in reading permitted in the State are as follows: Van Amburgh's "First Days in Reading" (Atkinson, Mentzer & Grover, Chicago, publishers); Wooster's First, Second, and Third Readers (Wooster & Co., Chicago, publishers); "Searson-Martin Studies in Reading," Fourth Reader and Fifth Reader (University Publishing Company, Chicago, Illinois); "American Classics" (Houghton Mifflin Company).

This completes the list. What do you think of it as a sum total of literary food that the Kansas child may use during his eight years in the elementary schools? Isn't this crime against our children of sufficient magnitude to deserve the attention of papers of National circulation? I have been a teacher in the State for nine years, but have never seen a word of censure to the State for this act appear in any paper whose opinion has much weight in the Nation. The protests of the school men seem to be useless. They have been made repeatedly.

GEORGE G. PINNEY,
Superintendent of City Schools.
McPherson, Kansas.

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MANY INVENTIONS

SAFETY FIRST

An important convention of mining operators, engineers, and surgeons is to be held in Pittsburgh in September to discuss the best way of reducing accidents in mines and quarries. In one year (1911) 3,600 men were killed and 6,331 injured in these industries. The meeting is an outcome of the "Safety First" agitation, already described in The Outlook, and also of the good work done by the United States Bureau of Mines. Mr. H. M. Wilson of that Bureau is quoted as follows:

Mine operators now realize that it is more expensive to restore wrecked mines, more costly to fight damage suits through the courts, and less profitable to pay regulated liability charges or even workmen's compensation, than it is to bear the cost involved in reducing these charges by means of diminishing the number of accidents and the duration of the resulting disability by the adoption of improved safety, rescue, and first-aid methods.

Since 58 per cent of all industrial accidents are shown by statistics to be due to negligence, carelessness, or lack of knowledge of employers or employees, the vital necessity of learning everything possible about the causes and means of preventing these accidents must be evident to every man concerned in mining. To the operators it spells business success or failure; to the miner, life or the physical ability to work and support a family.

FIRING EXPLOSIVES BY WIRELESS

The larger the claim made for an invention the less is one inclined to accept it without full confirmation. When we find it stated in headlines that a new optical discovery is about to revolutionize warfare, we report the allegation but reserve opinion. Here is the story, however, which has, as will be seen, particularity as regards names and circumstances; it is in the form of a press cable despatch from Deauville, France:

The smart little French yacht Lady Henrietta, flying the British flag, and provided with wireless apparatus and antennæ and having Signor Ulivi, the Italian engineer and chemist on board, has been hovering about the Norman coast during the past few days. The yacht contains the invaluable secret of a new invention for exploding at distances varying from 600 to 6,000 yards by wireless infra-red solar spectrum waves, called F-rays by Ulivi, all explosive substances in contact with metal which may be on board of any vessel of war.

Experiments with astoundingly successful results have been made with this invention, which Ulivi predicts will revolutionize modern warfare on land and sea, in the presence of General de Castelnau, assistant chief of the general staff of the French army, Commandant Ferrie, director of the wireless telegraphy station of the Eiffel Tower, and Captain Cloitre, representing the French Minister of Marine. This technical commission has made reports which are kept a profound state secret, but, according to the highest authority, they conclude with a recommendation urging the French Government to secure the monopoly of the invention.

Roughly speaking, the application consists in finding, by means of a special projector emitting return infra-red rays, the exact distance and exact radio-magnetic capacity of metallic objects. When these have been determined with precision, the Ulivi F-ray is projected and a long-distance wireless explosion ensues with mathematical accuracy.

Experiments made near Villers by Ulivi and the French Government commissioner on board the Lady Henrietta resulted in exploding submarine mines a thousand yards distant with such accuracy that one of two mines only five yards apart was exploded at will, while the second mine remained intact.

HOW OLD IS DENTISTRY?

Tooth-pulling is doubtless as ancient a surgical operation, if so it may be called, as is known to mankind; but tooth-filling has been supposed to be a modern invention. Herodotus, and of course Galen, knew something about dentistry, but apparently not about fillings. But as early as the sixteenth century there is found printed evidence that the use of gold leaves to fill cavities had long been known, if not generally practiced. The assertion that Egyptian mummies have been found with gold-filled teeth is now generally thought to be an error arising out of the fact that the Egyptians often gilded the teeth of mummies for ornament. The question comes up in connection with the explorations of Professor Saville, of Columbia, in Ecuador. He found many pre-Aztec skulls perhaps a thousand years old, of a type superior to the Aztecs, and what was especially remarkable was that their teeth showed both gold and cement filling. The New York "Sun," in describing this find, says:

The gold-filled teeth struck him as the most unusual feature of his finds. In Mexico he had dug up skulls with teeth filled or ornamented with stone, but he had never before seen gold fillings in a prehistoric skull. The gold was on the edges of the teeth and had been applied from the inside. It showed little on the outside, so the purpose appeared to be less for ornamentation than for utility. Some of the teeth were filled with cement. In all cases, whether the fillings were gold or cement, the borings indicated that a tool had been used that did the work possibly as well as the instruments of the modern dentist. Some of the teeth that apparently had been loosened were held together by gold bands. . . . Professor Saville said that the residents, or natives, of that part of Ecuador where he found the skulls and the pottery, just north of the equator, apparently were the only primitive people who understood the art of using jewels and platinum in decorative art.

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One of the objects of using gold in the teeth doubtless was ornamentation, but the chief purpose seemed to be to preserve the teeth.

A SAFETY EXHIBIT CAR

A new and interesting feature of railway enterprise and progressiveness has just been introduced by the New York Central lines. At the Grand Central Terminal that company recently opened for inspection its Safety Exhibit Car, which has been put into service in connection with the work of the safety department of the company. The car is intended primarily to use as an instruction car, for the purpose of inculcating the doctrine of "Safety First" in the minds of the 125,000 or more employees of the railway. The interior of the car is finished in white enamel. Along both sides of the car is a shelf about three feet from the floor finished in mahogany, which contains models of every kind of machine used in the many shops on the system. The company requires all machines to be properly guarded so as to prevent workmen becoming caught in the various parts and injured. These models show the proper manner of applying these guards. The models of machines are perfect in detail and show at a glance how to make the machines safe. Along the side walls of the car above the models are several rows of pictures, some of them showing machine guards and various safety appliances. On one side of the car the picture space is devoted entirely to unsafe practices, and there are fully a hundred photographs which explain graphically the common practices of railway employees that cause accidents resulting in injuries to themselves and others. Alongside of a picture showing the improper or unsafe way of doing a certain kind of work is another picture showing the safe or proper way. Employees will be taken through this car by an attendant and instructed in the matter of safeguarding, not only themselves, but the public from injury. One section of the picture gallery is devoted to the trespass question, and there are a number of pictures showing how persons risk their lives needlessly by trespassing on railway property. Above these trespass pictures is a statement calling attention to the fact that more than ten thousand trespassers are killed and injured annually on railways in the United States. Attached to the Exhibit Car there will be a coach which will be used as a lecture car. This car is equipped with a stereopticon, and illustrated lectures on Safety will be given to employees at various points.

THE NEW ALPINE RAILWAY

The newest Alpine railway—the Lötschberg—just opened, is described by a correspondent of the "Scotsman" as one of the greatest feats of railway engineering ever accomplished. For more than six years this colossal work has been going on in the face of almost insuperable difficulties, and, although but forty-eight miles in length, has cost four million pounds and more than forty human lives. The object of the Lötschberg Railway is to provide a direct route to the Simplon, and so to Italy, from western and northwestern Europe, hitherto impossible owing to the vast natural barrier of the Bernese Alps range. It is estimated that in future a reduction of from one to five hours will be effected on the journey, according to the point of departure. The starting-point of the line, Spiez, on the Lake of Thun, is approached *via* Delle or Basel and Berne; at Spiez the powerful electric locomotives which have been designed for the Lötschberg service will be substituted for the steam locomotive, and the journey will be continued by way of the Kandersteg Valley and the Lötschberg Tunnel to the Rhone Valley. The line proceeds along a narrow ledge blasted out of the rock one thousand feet above the Rhone, and gradually descends until Brigue, the entrance to the Simplon Tunnel, is reached. For its accomplishment it was necessary to pierce a ten-mile-long tunnel through the great Alpine chain, and the remainder of the line was laid through wildly precipitous country, where every foot of track had to be wrested from nature. Dozens of tunnels have been pierced, and numerous deep ravines bridged. There are twelve smaller tunnels to the north of the great Lötschberg Tunnel, and no fewer than twenty-one on the southern section.

AN INGENIOUS LITTLE HELP

The scissors, says "Chambers's Journal," have an uncanny knack of wandering even from the tidiest work-basket, and often, when wanted, cannot be found. This is particularly the case in casual sewing operations. With a view to prevent this, and to obviate the necessity of snapping or biting a length of cotton or thread from the reel, a novel little device has been patented. It comprises a small spindle which slips through the hole in the reel, and which at one end is fitted with a tiny blade. It is held in position on the reel by a spring passing from the lower end of the spindle to the blade projection. Thus a cutting edge is fitted to the reel, and remains there until the contents of the reel have been exhausted. All that is necessary, when a sufficient length of thread or cotton has been unwound, is to pass the cotton over the knife-edge, and to give it a slight tight pull, when it is immediately severed at the desired point. This way of dispensing with the scissors is just one of those little refinements which serve to relieve domestic worries. When the reel has been exhausted, the device can be withdrawn in an instant and applied to another reel.

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BY THE WAY

Dr. Grenfell writes from "Down North on the Labrador." "I've had an accident with the Strathcona boiler, which has put her *hors de combat* for the season. A bad blow for me, and especially for the Labrador folks. I'm going to try to get around in a yawl—but I'm not as young as I was, and the feeling of inefficiency will be very trying after so many years."

The horrors of the Sicilian sulphur mines, which have been described by more than one traveler, are likely to be lessened through the competition of improved American methods. Louisiana and Texas sulphur mines, in which the sulphur is melted underground and pumped to the surface, now supply this country with over 90 per cent of the sulphur consumed, while only a few years ago almost all of our sulphur was imported from Sicily.

The "Interstate Medical Journal," in a leading editorial on the new Poet Laureate, Dr. Bridges, remarks that in none of the poems or plays of this ex-physician is there "the faintest adumbration of the influence of the science of medicine on an exceptional mind." This fact may perhaps be due to the effort of a busy man to "sink the shop" in his hours of ease.

Norway, according to the "American-Scandinavian Review," within the last five years has become the fourth seafaring nation in the world, counting by ship tonnage alone; in proportion to its population it ranks first.

Getting books away from libraries and into the hands of readers is now considered of equal importance with accumulating the volumes. The Cleveland Public Library, in pursuing this policy, announces that during the last year its books were distributed for home use through no less than 469 different agencies.

The "West Coast Leader," of Lima, Peru, quoting a Government document, says that the Peruvian law regulating strikes, which has been in force since the beginning of this year, has proved highly satisfactory in eliminating the heretofore frequent conflicts between capital and labor in that country. Can we not learn something along this line from Peru?

The men who carry the dinner-pail certainly ought to have a decent place in which to eat its contents. A recent strike in New York City on the part of 5,000 varnishers was for proper lunch-rooms, so that they should not be compelled to eat their noon meal among offensive smells or on the roofs of buildings.

The United States Government will erect at Caimito, in the Canal Zone, one of the greatest wireless stations in the world, to be known as the Darien Radio Station. It will have three towers, each 600 feet high. It is expected to be able to communicate with San Francisco on the north and with Valdivia, Chile, 421 miles beyond Valparaiso, on the south, while Buenos Aires will be reached on the east coast of South America.

Warwick Castle, on the river Avon, is reported to be for rent. The temptation to rent to others these romantic but often somewhat uncomfortable abodes of the past frequently prove irresistible to the "poor families" among the nobility. Here is a chance for some wealthy American to see how it feels to live in the house of a "King-maker."

A subscriber writes enthusiastically of the parcel post. She wanted to return a wrap she had borrowed from a friend; the parcel post charged seven cents for the service and five cents for insuring the parcel: total twelve cents. The express company in the old days would have charged her, she says, about seventy-five cents.

A large advertisement in the New York "Herald" is headed "Ameublement" and signed by the name of one of America's merchant princes. This is the only French word in the advertisement. Was it used as a subtle compliment to the scholarly attainments of the "Herald's" readers—or was it "bad business" for the advertisement writer to use a word that to most Americans would be meaningless until looked up in a French-English dictionary?

Athletics on shipboard, which are usually resorted to in order to beguile the weary hours when the ship is nearing port, ought to be practiced with caution. In a recent "obstacle race" on the Cedric a young man was badly injured by striking a steel stanchion. There are so many unfamiliar things on shipboard that races might well be tabooed to the uninitiated.

To dangerous aquatic monsters such as whales, squids, and sharks must now be added the pike. A camper in the Adirondacks was recently drowned by the struggles of a giant pike which he had hooked, and which, after the angler's boat had accidentally upset, pulled the fisherman down as he became entangled in the line.

A Kentucky court recently took up the vexed question of spelling. A school superintendent marked a pupil only 25 per cent on his spelling; the court examiners appointed marked the same pupil's answers with a rating of 55 per cent. The difference arose in this way: The superintendent found only five words out of twenty spelled correctly. The court examiners made allowances for orthography that "came close to it." For instance, "protection" would be marked 100, "protecshun" 70, and "protekshun" 60! The plan would doubtless have had the hearty approval of Andrew Jackson, not to say of Josh Billings.

A Chicago firm of publishers offered a $10,000 prize for the best novel. Anybody, apparently,

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who has had a harrowing heart experience, such as being jilted by his best girl, thinks he can write a novel, for the manuscripts have been pouring in by the hundreds from the most impossible sources. One would-be prize-winner writes: "Do you want it wrote with a pen or print?" Another: "I never written an article for A Contest in my life, But I will try any thing once, Being A brick mason, I have some pretty good dope."

The far-famed Iowa Slough, says a little book called "The Farmer of To-Morrow," was a strip of swamp forty-one miles long, containing 45,000 acres, just north of Burlington—a bottomless pit of muck. "To-day, where the duck-hunter used to punt his scow, there are hard, level roads, grain elevators, fenced fields, and diversified farming of the highest type. A railroad has been built to tap this miniature Holland." It cost $9.31 an acre to drain this swamp, and the land is said now to be valued at $150 an acre.

The Hollander, continues "The Farmer of To-Morrow," entering or leaving New York City, with its market of five million hungry people, cannot understand why the Newark Meadows—almost as big as their Haarlem Meer—are not reclaimed from the tides and set to growing vegetables. No doubt in a few years this great swamp may repeat the history of the Iowa Slough.

Another real Son of the Revolution is reported as still living—Peter Alverson Wilsey, aged eighty-six, a resident of Mount Pleasant, Michigan. He was born in 1827, the son of James Wilsey, who was born in 1759, and who enlisted in the Continental Army at Saratoga Springs, New York, and served from 1776 to 1783.

Mr. Charles Feleky, of New York City, a book collector, has in his possession a newspaper which is thought to be the oldest in the world. If genuine, it antedates by nearly eight months the copy of "The Weekly Newes," dated May 23, 1622, which is preserved in the British Museum and has been regarded as the oldest newspaper extant.

The biggest Boy Scout in the world is Michael Stiegler, of Philadelphia, who, at the age of fifteen, is 6 feet 7 inches tall and weighs 180 pounds. His grandfather's height was 7 feet 1 inch, but by the time Michael is twenty-one he may exceed even this.

An ecclesiastic with a narrow view of his office can sometimes confer a lasting favor on a church under more liberal management. Such was the case when a Bishop, recently deceased, declined to conduct the funeral services of an actor and referred the late Joseph Jefferson to "a little church around the corner" as a place where the service might be conducted. Ever since, this church has been known as "The Little Church Around the Corner," and it has become the church home of many prominent New York City theatrical people.

A year or so ago the sporting world was astonished at the news that a French pugilist had won a victory over an Englishman. But what can be its emotion at reading this item in the New York "Tribune:" "In the semi-final Ah Chung, a Chinese boxer, scored a knockout over Paddy McCormack." Would it not have been better to leave the Chinese in their isolation than to have our banners thus trailed in the dust?

Sven Hedin, the famous traveler, is deeply imbued with the spirit of science. In his book for young people, "From Pole to Pole," he tells of a terrible experience in the Gobi Desert. When, almost dead with thirst, he came upon a pool of water, before drinking he took out his watch and felt his pulse, which beat forty-nine. Then only did he drink. After a few minutes his pulse rose to fifty-six. Think of a man perishing with thirst feeling his pulse for a minute before drinking!

San Francisco's oldest newspaper, the "Morning Call," is to be discontinued. It was founded in 1856 by a co-operative band of seven printers, and had made its morning call at the homes of two generations of San Franciscans through the many vicissitudes of the city's stirring history. Its plant will, however, it is announced, be used in the publication of an "Evening Call."

One by one the nautical links with the past are dismantled or wrecked. The United States frigate Santee, built ninety-four years ago, is to be burned for the sake of getting her copper bottom and rivets. The word "frigate" somehow has an old-time flavor that makes one wish that every vessel of that description might be preserved a little longer.

A friendly critic laughs at the phraseology of a statement made in this department a few weeks ago, beginning: "The natural inclination among *men* of normal constitutions to take unto themselves *a wife*," etc. He says that he "had supposed that it was only in Thibet . . . that men . . . had any such polyandrous inclination[s]." The term was used advisedly, however, for if "wives" had been substituted, the same friend would surely have written: "Take to themselves *wives!* Alas! The Outlook is turning Mormon." Tibet is so far away, and Utah so near, that a prospective accusation of polyandry seemed less offensive than one of polygamy.

The possible misunderstanding involved in the use of "wife" or "wives" brings to mind "Punch's" illustration. The lady disputed the conductor's right to collect her fare. "I would have you know, sir, that I am one of the directors' wives!" "I don't care, madam, if you are his only wife—I must obey the company's rules!"

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